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A STUDY OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE PROCESS IN THE UGANDA-CANADA PRIMARY TEACHER TRAINING PROJECT 1964 - 1966

by

© SWEE-HIN TOH

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

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EDMONTON, ALBERTA

FALL, 1974

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled "A Study of the Administrative Process in the Uganda-Canada Primary Teacher Training Project 1964-1966" submitted by Swee-Hin Toh in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Education.

L. P. Gue
Supervisor

Date Sept 30, 1974

ABSTRACT

This study examined the nature of the administrative process in the Uganda-Canada Primary Teacher Training Project, an educational aid program implemented at The University of Alberta from 1964 to 1966. Organizational and educational administrative concepts and theory, as well as knowledge and theory of the administration of aid-study or training programs for nationals from developing nations, set the theoretical framework underlying the investigation. Data were collected through interviews and documentary study. A sample of eighteen individuals who had participated in the Uganda Project as administrators, instructors, trainees, or in informal roles, were interviewed using a schedule of questions categorized under various administrative task-areas. Documents studied were obtained from files belonging to the former External Aid Office of Canada, and The University of Alberta.

The findings of the study were recorded in two parts. First, there was a description embodying facts and opinions on the way in which the Project was initiated and terminated, and of significant issues and events vis-a-vis six selected administrative task-areas: student personnel, staff personnel, curriculum, finance, physical plant, and university-community relationships. These issues included the selection, orientation, academic and non-academic problems, achievement, and counselling of participant trainees, the administrative, instructional support, and informal staffing of the Project, the goals and adequacy of the curriculum, the Project costs, and the interactions between trainees and the Canadian community.

Secondly, there was an analysis and interpretation of the administrative process in the Project according to a conceptual framework consisting of six functional components of the process: planning, organizing, decision-making, coordinating, communicating, and evaluating. Each component was discussed in relation to certain, selected issues considered pertinent to the administration of an aid-study program. The discussion on planning dealt with its comprehensiveness, and the roles of the organizational intermediaries involved in the Project. Formal and informal roles, social system conflicts, and effectiveness and efficiency as defined by Barnard and interpreted by the Getzels-Guba social behavior model, were the major issues related to the organizing component. The other components were discussed as follows: decision-making (roles of organizational intermediaries; quality), coordinating (inter-organizational; within university), communicating (inter-organizational; cross-cultural), and evaluating (formative; summative).

The overall conclusion of this study was that the administrative process in the Project was neither very effective nor very efficient in blending human, material, and organizational resources used in the operation and administration of the Project. There were serious deficiencies in all components of the process that led to numerous difficulties and conflicts inimical to the success of the Project. These deficiencies might have been averted had a more systematic and comprehensive approach been taken in the administration of the Project. From the analysis of problems encountered in this particular aid program, some guidelines or criteria were derived for the improved administration of aid-study programs in general. These included the

need for comprehensive planning before the program or project is launched, extensive involvement of the training institution in planning and organizing of the study program, and effective communication and coordination between and among the training institution, the aid-agency of the donor country, the diplomatic mission of the donor country to the recipient country, and the recipient country itself. The utility of the methodology devised for this study, with its explicit administrative perspective, should be further tested by applying it to other specific aid-study or training programs.

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To my thesis supervisor, Dr. L. R. Gue, I owe a special debt of gratitude for this opportunity to share in research on a problem of applied significance to Third World development, as well as his encouragement and helpful advice during the writing of the thesis.

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My thanks also extend to Dr. M. Horowitz and Dr. J. E. Seger for consenting to be on the oral examination committee, and to the Department of Educational Administration for the provision of an assistantship which greatly facilitated my presence in Canada. Finally, I am grateful to Mrs. E. Man for her patient and efficient typing of the thesis.

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

In the period following World War II, educational development has been increasingly recognized as essential to economic growth and overall development of the less affluent nations of the world. Consequently, educational aid has featured more and more prominently in the bilateral and multilateral aid policies and programs of the advanced industrialized countries (Sharp, 1970; Smith, 1970; Walmsley, 1970:267-280). Canada, for instance, has hosted over fourteen thousand students and trainees since the early fifties when Canadian awards were first offered (CIDA, 1973a).

This trend logically invokes the necessity of conducting adequate research into the efficacy of such aid, for as the Director of the International Institute of Educational Planning once said,

> to stop with recognizing the benefits of this educational interchange would be to ignore its many problems, defects, and opportunities for improvement (Coombs, 1965a:viii).

A thrust towards such research in Canada was recently provided by a CIDA[1] commissioned study of Canadian university resources for the support of international assistance programs. In that study, Walmsley (1970:112) reported that no substantial information was at present available on the campuses regarding the degree to which programs were preparing foreign students to meet the needs in their countries.

---

[1] The Canadian International Development Agency.

> With a few exceptions, we found no evidence ... of specific programme evaluation or any serious study on achievement of overseas students.

A contrasting experience, for example, is that of the United States, where evaluation studies of programs administered by its Agency for International Development are quite common (Crabbs and Holmquist, 1967:117-128). So far though, such studies lack a systematic and explicit application of educational administrative theory. Yet, as Campbell (1972) recently reiterated, information based on a useful theoretical framework may help us predict the consequences of certain courses of action, and furnish a firmer foundation for the practice of education.

There is therefore not only a need to evaluate Canada's increasing involvement in external aid to education, but also to do so utilizing administrative theory. An in-depth study of the administration of one completed aid project, founded on a valid theoretical framework, would thus be both timely and useful. The investigation focuses on the Uganda-Canada Primary Teacher Training Project conducted at The University of Alberta between 1964 and 1966. Selected as the framework for the study is the widely accepted concept of the administrative process.

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

This study has the status of a "joint project" involving direct inputs from Dr. L. R. Gue, Professor of Educational Administration, The University of Alberta, and this researcher. Commencement of the investigation dates back, however, to 1972. In February of that year, Dr. Gue was invited by Dr. A. R. McKinnon,

Special Adviser, Education Division, Canadian International Development Agency, to evaluate a completed Canadian educational aid project, namely the Uganda Project.

At the outset, it should be stated that though this particular Project was sited at The University of Alberta, both researchers had in no way been involved in its operation, and hence were "permissible" evaluators. As contemporary evaluation theory rules, persons who have come to identify with a program usually lose the independence necessary for an objective evaluation (Scriven, 1967:45). In June of 1972, a proposal submitted by Dr. Gue was accepted by CIDA (Appendix A) and the investigation began immediately after.

When this researcher undertook to participate in the study in August, 1973, Dr. Gue's research activity had already proceeded along two lines: (a) the interviewing, using a self-constructed schedule (Appendix B), of thirteen persons who had been involved in the operation of the Project, either as instructional and/or administrative personnel of The University of Alberta, or as personnel of CIDA's predecessor, the External Aid Office; (b) the accumulation of relevant documents located in files at CIDA or in The University of Alberta Archives.

The role of this researcher was consequently to analyze, interpret and evaluate the collected documentary and interview data according to a selected conceptual framework drawn from administrative theory. The framework, as stated earlier, is the concept of "the administrative process." Also, in order to ensure uniformity, Dr. Gue continued to administer five remaining interviews over the period September 1973 to May 1974.

THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

The general purpose of this study is to establish a benchmark or point of reference in the administration of bilateral aid study/training programs or projects conducted by Canada in the field of education. Central to the investigation is a problem which may be expressed by the following question:

What is the nature of the administrative process in the Uganda-Canada Primary Teacher Training Project[1] implemented at The University of Alberta in the academic years of 1964-65 and 1965-66?

More specifically, the study will attempt to accomplish two objectives. It seeks first to provide Canada, Uganda, and The University of Alberta with concise, accurate and useful information, organized topically, concerning the administration of the Project. The topics relate to six administrative task-areas in each of which the administrative process is involved, namely student personnel, staff personnel, curriculum, finance, physical plant, and university-community relationships.

Secondly, an effort is directed towards formulating a generalization concerning the effectiveness and efficiency of the administrative process in blending human, material and organizational resources used in the administration and operation of the Project. In attempting to generalize, six selected components of the administrative process are each investigated and evaluated. The

---

[1] Hereafter referred to simply as the Uganda Project, or the Project.

components are planning, organizing, decision-making, coordinating, communicating, and evaluating.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

It is hoped that this piece of research will extend present knowledge in the theory and methodology of educational aid programs. The systematic probing into one particular case promises to yield not just an understanding of its process complexities, and administrative strengths and weaknesses, which allow evaluation of that program per se. Emerging from such understanding may well be perceptions of how future aid programs in the educational context may be more effectively administered and conducted.

DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study is delimited to a description and analysis of the administrative process in the Uganda Project during the years (1964-1966) it was in operation. There will be no explicit attempt to investigate the actual impact of the Project, if any, on post-1966 administrative policies or structures of any of the participant organizations. It is realized, of course, that as the study proceeds, information bearing on this issue may indirectly become evident.

Although it was originally intended that the Uganda sector in relation to the Project should also be researched in situ, circumstances beyond the control of the researchers aborted this intention. Thus in soliciting information from human resources, the study is delimited with two exceptions to Canadian human resources. The exceptions are two trainees (of the 1965-1966 group) who have since returned to Canada as landed immigrants.

Thirdly, the researchers have desisted from further data-gathering in any sector where highly defensive responses happen to be elicited. This approach aims to maintaining harmony and goodwill rather than alienating respondents in attempts to obtain exhaustive data.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The first major limitation of the study resides in the absence, with two exceptions, of Ugandan human resources in the sample. Furthermore, of the two returned trainees, one was not able to furnish long-range post-Project information as her sojourn in Uganda before returning to Canada had lasted only two months. Overall, therefore, very little primary data is available concerning the administrative process of the Project in the Ugandan context, that is, before the trainees departed for Canada, and after their return home.

Another limitation is that the perceptions or knowledge of the two returned trainees with respect to (a) the Project when it was in operation, and (b) their evaluation of its effectiveness and efficiency, are restricted to the 1965-1966 year of the Project, and even then, may not accurately represent the view of the twenty-eight other second-group trainees.

Thirdly, the Project occurred nearly a decade ago, so that the accuracy of some of the data and interpretation of the data are dependent upon the power of recall of the respondents, as well as the present availability of relevant documents. A final major limitation is related to the extent to which comprehensive information is willingly given by all parties concerned in a spirit of goodwill and constructive action.

ASSUMPTIONS

Two major assumptions underly this study. The first is that the concept of the administrative process provides an adequate conceptual framework in which the administration of the Uganda Project may be investigated and reported.

Secondly, it was assumed that the in-depth analysis and evaluation of one specific educational aid project would provide guidelines for improved means of administering other such projects.

DEFINITIONS

The Administrative Process

The administrative process may be defined briefly as the way, involving a complex of activities such as planning, organizing, communicating, coordinating, and evaluating, by which an organization makes decisions and takes actions to achieve its goals.

Administrative Task-Areas

An administrative task-area is defined as an operational area of responsibility in which a large number of related administrative tasks are focused. Within any complex organization, the administrative process is involved in work in each of the task-areas.

Educational Aid Program

In this study, an educational aid program refers to a bilateral (two country) assistance program implemented at the request of a developing country, through direct negotiations between that country and the donor country, in order to improve the quality of any aspect of its educational system at any level.

Aid Study Program/Project

The term "aid study (or training) program" is used to denote an educational aid program in the form of scholarships for overseas study (or training). An "aid study (or training) project" is considered to be an overseas study or training program specially designed for a specific group of participants.

Donor and Recipient Country

A donor country or nation in this study simply means a country offering aid to a developing or poorer nation. The recipient country is the country receiving the aid.

Human Resources

In this study, human resources will be considered to include all those individuals who have contributed to the Project through their roles as trainees, professors, administrators, or significant persons in the social milieu. The individuals may have been located, at the time of the Project, in Uganda, the External Aid Office, The University of Alberta, or in some other socially significant setting for the Project, such as community activities for or with the trainees.

Material Resources

Material resources will be considered to include the funds required for the Project, the educational facilities available to the Project, and any other material things which may have contributed significantly to the Project. These resources may have been in Uganda, the External Aid Office, or The University of Alberta and its milieu.

Organizational Resources

Organizational resources will be deemed to be those specific

temporary systems established under an organizational umbrella to implement the Project, such as selection committees, university advisory committees, residence committees, or a co-ordinator of program. These resources may have been in Uganda, the External Aid Office, or The University of Alberta.

Trainees

In this study, the term "trainees" will be used to refer to all the Ugandan primary teachers who were sent to The University of Alberta to participate in the Project. "First group trainees" are those who came in 1964, while "second group trainees" refer to those who attended in 1965-1966.

External Aid Office

The term "External Aid Office", abbreviated as EAO for the purpose of this study, refers to that branch of the Department of External Affairs, Ottawa, which was established by Order in Council in 1960 to administer all international development aid activities of Canada. In September, 1968, the External Aid Office was transformed into the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA). However, as this study focusses on the years when the office was still in operation, the abbreviation EAO will be used rather than CIDA in the description of the Project.

ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS

The preceding discussion has provided the justification, background, purposes, research problem, significance, limitations,

and delimitations of the study. The format of the remainder of the thesis is as follows:

In Chapter 2, the conceptual framework to be used in the analysis of the Project is delineated in terms of six components of the administrative process, and the various administrative task-areas in which the process operates. This discussion then allows a restatement of the research problem at the end of the chapter.

A review of the related literature is found in Chapter 3. The first part gives a general background to the culture and society of Uganda, as well as the educational development in that country in the fifties and early sixties. In the second part of the review, relevant literature on educational assistance and on foreign students' affairs are presented.

The fourth chapter describes the research design and methodology. Sampling, and the research sample are first discussed, followed by a description of the interview schedule used, and how interview data are collected. Next comes a listing of the documentary sources of data. Finally, after explaining the method of data processing, the chapter concludes with a note on the validity and reliability of the study.

The findings of the study are presented in two separate chapters. Chapter 5 is essentially a description of the Uganda Project, embodying both facts and opinions, under the various administrative task-areas. In Chapter 6, the administrative process in the Project is analyzed and evaluated within the conceptual framework set out earlier. The final chapter contains a summary of the investigation, implications of the findings for the administration of aid study

programs in general, and concluding remarks, including implications for further research.

Chapter 2

THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

INTRODUCTION

Scientific inquiry, as Kaplan (1964:159) has stressed, necessarily involves use of a "conceptual frame", which he defines as all the ideation that enters into the design and interpretation of every experiment. Theory guides the inquirer in what to observe, to measure or even to explore, as well as how to interpret his observations. In this study, it is "the administrative process" that provides a conceptual framework for describing and interpreting the administration of the Uganda Project.

THE ADMINISTRATIVE PROCESS

Practitioners and scholars in educational administration today widely recognize the need for "understanding administrative and organizational processes in more fundamental and necessarily abstract terms" (Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell, 1968:5). One very fundamental concept which has gained broad consensus is the administrative process. In the context of a complex organization, the concept means that administration is a process flowing through the actions of various (not merely administrative) members of the organization, spanning and linking levels rather than occurring at one level, and related to the interaction of levels and components (Thompson, 1967:149).

More specifically, the administrative process has been

conceptualized by several workers as comprising several functional components. Earlier attempts include Fayol's (1916) "elements of management", namely planning, organizing, commanding, co-ordinating and controlling, and Gulick's (1937) famous POSDCoRB formulation of planning, organizing, staffing, directing, co-ordinating, reporting and budgeting. In 1950, Newman emphasized assembling resources, planning, organizing, controlling and directing, while Sears identified the latter four components plus co-ordinating.

Other later conceptualizations were given by the American Association of School Administrators (1955), Litchfield (1956), Gregg (1957), and Campbell et al. (1971:187-199). Litchfield envisaged a cyclical sequence of decision-making, programming, communicating, controlling, and re-appraising, a scheme adhered to rather closely by Campbell and co-workers. Gregg, with the educational context in mind, identified planning, decision-making, organizing, co-ordinating, communicating, influencing and evaluating. It is seen that a considerable amount of overlap exists among the various formulations.

For the purposes of this study, six components of the administrative process are selected to constitute a conceptual framework suitable for investigating educational aid programs, viz. planning, organizing, decision-making, coordinating, communicating, and evaluating. These components constitute in themselves complex administrative activities, and the ensuing discussion of each component is necessarily limited to a selection of the more basic elements.

(1) Planning

A statement such as "planning is inherent in the very conception of society and is indispensable to its survival" (Friedmann, 1959) would hardly be disputed in today's rationality-conscious age. While considerable literature exists on specialized techniques of planning in diverse administrative spheres, relatively less is found on "pure" planning theory (Friedmann, 1959; Banfield, 1959:LeBreton and Henning, 1961; Dror, 1963; Ackoff, 1970). This seems attributable to the existing wide consensus on what the concept means. Ackoff (1970:1-22) provides a recent clear and concise discussion, defining planning as

> a process that involves making and evaluating each of a set of interrelated decisions before action is required, in a situation in which it is believed that unless action is taken, a desired future state is not likely to occur, and that, if appropriate action is taken, the likelihood of a favourable outcome can be increased.

Planning is therefore a special form of decision-making, entailing the making of "anticipatory" decisions, in contrast to unplanned or "opportunistic" decision-making, such as choosing actions not mutually related as a single means, or extemporizing to meet crises as they arise (Banfield, 1959:362-365). This is not to deny that uncertainty always exists in any planning situation. Indeed, it is because reason must come to terms with uncertainty that theorists have advocated the necessity for flexibility in planning (Friedmann, 1959:334). Thus there should be continuous assessment and adjustment of means and ends, and the plan, which embodies the anticipatory decisions, is always subject to revision.

The planning process, according to Ackoff, has five parts,

viz. (Ackoff, 1970:6)

1. Ends: specification of goals and objectives.
2. Means: selection of policies, programs, procedures, and practices by which goals and objectives are to be pursued.
3. Resources: determination of the types and amounts of resources required, how they are to be generated or acquired, and how they are to be allocated to activities.
4. Implementation: design of decision-making procedures and a way of organizing them so that the plan can be carried out.
5. Control: design of a procedure for anticipating or detecting errors in, or failures, of the plan and for preventing or correcting them on a continuing basis.

While this framework would find general agreement among theorists, it is essential to add two further steps which are often bound up with specification of goals and objectives. These steps, extracted from Kaufman's (1972:6) framework of educational system planning, are

> Identifying and documenting needs
> Selecting among the documented needs those of sufficient priority for action.

Identification of needs is in fact a "discrepancy analysis" measuring the distance between "where are we now?" and "where are we to be?". The requirement of placing priorities among the needs is simply a function of the availability of resources.

Not all plans contain the seven parts delineated, and Ackoff sees the degree of inclusion or emphasis as dependent on the "philosophy" underlying the planning. One may, following Simon (1959), choose to "satisfice", in which case goals, objectives and means identified have only to be desirable and feasible, not necessarily "the best possible". Such planning tends to be conservative, survival-oriented rather than growth or development-oriented, and inflexible, with little awareness of the uncertainties or possibilities of the future. In "optimizing planning", however, the aim is "to perform as well as possible". Mathematical models or quantitative optimization

techniques have been used in certain situations (ERIC, 1970), though for complex problems, qualitative judgements are clearly essential. So is attention to the "human" non-programmable aspects of an organization such as motivation. "Adaptivizing" or "innovative" planning focuses on the social learning value of participation in the planning process, and on organizational adaptiveness through contingency planning and in-built responsiveness and flexibility.

Ackoff also makes clear the useful distinction between tactical and strategic planning. The latter is relatively long-range, relatively broad in scope, and concerned with goal formulation and means selection. Tactical planning, conversely, is relatively short range and narrow in scope, and concerned with selecting means to pursue goals normally supplied by a higher level in the organization.

Despite the importance of planning, contemporary theorists have recognized there are real limits to the logic of planning. As Friedmann (1969:333-337) explains

> these limitations arise from the fact that wide agreement on ends and means is not always obtained; that power and ideology come into conflict with reason; that historical changes are sometimes sudden and radical, instead of following a gradual and continuous course; and that the planning function becomes institutionalized and tends to grow increasingly conservative.

Much of the specific content of these limitations are subsumed under the "politics of planning", a subject now receiving more explicit attention (Dahl, 1959; Benveniste, 1972).

(2) Organizing

In contemporary organizational theory, all organizations are acknowledged to encompass both the formal and the informal organization. The formal organization refers to

> the rational coordination of the activities of a number of people for the achievement of some common explicit purpose or goal, through division of labour and function, and through a hierarchy of authority and responsibility (Schein, 1970:9).

It is revealed, for instance, by the organizational chart specifying official roles, and authority, power, responsibility and accountability relationships. People, however, inhabit organizations, and in their interactions as individuals or groups, soon develop their own unofficial ways of behaving, values and norms. Such

> social relations that develop among the staff or workers above and beyond the formal one determined by the organization ... or ... the actual organizational relations as they evolved as a consequence of the interaction between the organizational design and the pressures of the interpersonal relations among the participants

constitute the informal organization (Etzioni, 1964:40). The impact of the informal patterns on the attainment of formal objectives have been well recognized by organizational theorists such as Barnard (1938:120-122), Simon (1957:147-149) and Blau and Scott (1962:89-100).

As a component of the administrative process, organizing may be defined generally as the blending of human and material resources available to the organization for the accomplishment of its goals. This blending then necessarily involves both the formal and informal aspects of the organization. How well organizing has been carried out may be expressed in terms of the concepts of "effectiveness" and "efficiency". Because the informal organization exists, the personal goals and needs of individuals within an organization inevitably shape organizational performance. Indeed, the prime psychological problem formal organizations face is the successful integration of human needs and organizational demands (Schein, 1970:11). From this perspective, the conceptions of effectiveness and efficiency that emerge are exemplified by Barnard's (1938:60) formulation:

> ... The persistence of cooperation depends upon two conditions: (a) its effectiveness; and (b) its efficiency. Effectiveness relates to the accomplishment of the cooperative purpose, which is social and non-personal in character. Efficiency relates to the satisfaction of individual motives, and is personal in character.

One model of organizational behavior embodying such a view and which has proved useful in understanding educational administrative phenomena is Getzels and Guba's (1957) model. The model utilizes concepts drawn from "role theory" (Sarbin, 1954; Lonsdale, 1964; Thomas and Biddle, 1966). The concept "role" is perhaps most generally defined as "a set of standards, descriptions, norms or concepts held (by anyone) for the behaviors of a person or position" (Thomas and Biddle, 1966:11). Interaction between persons is therefore implied, with the reciprocal actions organized into roles. In addition, the interaction between role and self is emphasized. Since cultural, social, and personality variables have to be considered, role theory affords a relatively complex orientation for conceptualizing human conduct (Sarbin, 1954).

In the Getzels-Guba social behavior model, the concept of role is located within a social system framework[1]. A social system, as social scientists view it, comprises two dimensions of activity. The nomothetic dimension consists analytically of (1) the institution(s) serving the social system, (2) the roles representing positions, offices, or statutes within the institution(s), and (3) the role-expectations, which are prescriptions of allowed and dis-allowed behavior of the role-incumbents in their roles. The idiographic

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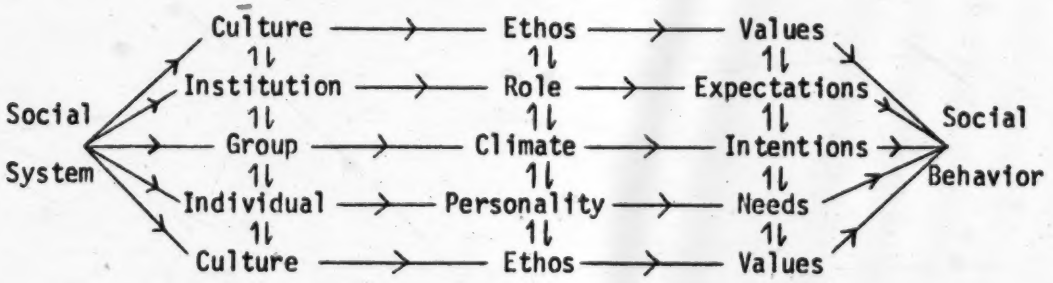
[1] The ensuing discussion draws heavily from the comprehensive treatment found in Getzels, Lipham and Campbell (1968:52-78).

dimension has the component elements of (1) the individuals in the social system, (2) each individual's personality which is defined by (3) the individual's need dispositions conceived of as forces within him affecting his cognitive, perceptual and other forms of behavior. According to the model, these two dimensions interact to produce the observed social behavior of each individual in the social system.

Since its inception, Getzels-Guba's basic model has been refined with the addition of a cultural dimension, as values are known to interact with role-expectations and need-dispositions (Getzels and Thelen, 1960). Also, with the acceptance of groups and their influences over individuals as social realities (e.g. Cartwright and Lippitt, 1957; Tannenbaum, 1966), a group dimension has been deemed relevant. Adding this dimension to Getzel's (1963:312) diagrammatic representation gives a picture of the model as follows:



Many useful conceptual derivations and empirical applications relevant to basic educational administrative issues have been obtained from the model (Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell, 1968:108). Conflict within the social system concerned, for example, can be understood as that between cultural values and institutional expectations, between roles and within roles. Effectiveness is interpreted by the model to be "a measure of the concordance of role behavior and role expectations, while efficiency is the extent of congruency between need-disposition

and actual behavior".

Organizing is not necessarily limited to permanent organizational structures. There has been an increasing emphasis on those structures called "temporary systems" (Miles, 1964). Examples are workshops, conferences, research projects, task force groups, and educational experiments. All these have the basic features of a temporary existence, clear initial goal focus and definition, close specification of personnel membership, and physical-social isolation. During the functioning of a temporary system, the coherent, narrowed time perspective often results in greater energy output to activities or tasks, while the experience itself can cause members to develop new role definitions. The environment also tends to encourage close communication among participants, as well as an attitude of curiosity and willingness to seek solutions to problems. Flowing from their very nature, however, temporary systems are liable to a number of dysfunctions or problems. Participants may over-extend themselves due to high involvement, goals set may be unrealistic, and process skills needed for task accomplishment may be lacking. Most important, perhaps, is the problem of linkage between the temporary system and the permanent structure, that is, the application of results achieved in the former into the latter system.

(3) Decision-making

Decision-making, as Dill (1964) says, has become too important to ignore, even for those who doubt its centrality to the theory and practice of administration. For those who do not, led notably by Simon (1957), decision-making is the primordial organizational act on which all other components of the administrative process depend . Reviewing

the literature, Elbing (1970:11-12) found that "selection among alternatives seems to be the key concept in the term decision-making". A recent, illuminating definition is given by Shull, Delbecq and Cummings (1970:31).

> Decision-making (is) a conscious and human process, involving both individual and social phenomena, based upon factual and value premises, which concludes with a choice of one behavioral activity from among one or more alternatives with the intention of moving toward some desired state of affairs.

Embodied in this definition are several contextual elements known to shape organizational decision-making. These include the "predisposition" of the decision-maker (e.g. his subjective perceptions of the problem or situation; his value system and goals), and the inputs from the social-psychological environment (e.g. group norms; social-cultural values).[1] Implied by or subsumed under these elements too, are the common errors besetting decision-making, such as cognitive nearsightedness which encourages expediency, over-simplification (e.g. dealing with the symptoms instead of the causes of a problem), over-reliance on personal experience, pre-conceived notions of the decision-maker, and the reluctance to decide (Nigro, 1970:178-183). Another important factor affecting decision-making is the information flow within the organization. As Iannaccone (1964:229) points out

> the quality of decision-making ... is related to the amount of relevant information available concerning the issues under consideration.

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[1] Clearly, the epistemological stance adopted here is that administrative decisions invariably involve questions of value as well as questions of fact (Simon, 1957:45-60). An interesting piece of exploratory research in this context comes from Glasman and Sell (1972), who reported a method for analyzing administrative decisions into a ratio of factual and value considerations on which each decision was based.

To date, the dominant model of decision-making consists of a series of logical "problem-solving" steps. Thus, Simon (1960:1) identifies three principal phases: "finding occasions for making a decision, finding possible courses of action, and choosing among courses of action". A typical, more complex or comprehensive sequence would be (1)identification of a disequilibrium, (2)diagnosis of the problem situation, (3)definition of the problem to be solved, (4)determination of alternative methods and solutions and choice of the best solution, and (5) implementation of the chosen solution (Elbing, 1970:12-13). Essentially, similar models are held by Griffiths (1959:94) and Morell (1970:160).

Against the "rational-comprehensive" nature of such models must be juxtaposed, of course, the "limits to rationality" in actual organizational life (Dill, 1964). Simon (1957:81) himself acknowledged that actual decision-making behavior falls short of "objective rationality" owing to incompleteness of knowledge of consequences, imperfect anticipation of values, and the impossibility of envisaging all possible alternative behaviors. Lindblom (1959) has criticized the model for assuming "intellectual capacities and sources of information that men simply do not have", while Lundberg (1962) argues that it is overly mechanistic. Alternative models proposed include Lindblom's method of "successive limited comparisons" or "incremental decision-making", Etzioni's (1967) "mixed-scanning" approach, and Thompson's(1967:134) paradigm of "computational, compromise, judgemental, and inspirational decision-making strategies".

Another important question in decision-making theory is that of who should make decisions within the organization. The key concept here is authority, which may be defined as "the power to make decisions which

guide the actions of others" (Simon, 1957:125). Much controversy currently centres on the issue of participative decision-making. Led by McGregor (1957), Argyris (1957) and other proponents of the "organic" or"human resources" model of organization, there has been a call for increased participation in decision-making widely spread throughout the organization. Lowin (1968:69), reviewing the evidence surrounding this controversy, has provided the following definition:

> By participative decision making we mean a mode of organizational operations in which decisions as to activities are arrived at by the very persons who are to execute those decisions. Participative decision making is contrasted with the conventional mode of operations in which decision and action functions are segregated in the authority structure.

In the educational context, the call for increased participation has been echoed with varying emphasis by Gregg (1957), Miklos (1970), and Sergiovanni and Starrat (1971) with respect to teacher participation in school decision-making, by Kelly and Konrad (1972) to student and faculty involvement in college governance, and by Friesen (1966) and Gorton (1972) to student participation in school decision-making. So far, however, research primarily in industry and business has indicated that participation has consequences varying over different situations, owing to varying mediating actor and environment variables (Lowin, 1968; Meyer, 1970). Though future research should, as Lowin (1968:99) suggests, focus on these variables "in order to ascertain the parameters of participative decision-making effectiveness", the fact that "questions of value" inevitably abound in this controversy (Meyer, 1970:6-15) cannot be ignored.

(4) Co-ordinating

An organization, as an organized entity of inter-dependent parts,

requires an administrative function that will keep these parts in harmony. Individuals, groups, functions, tasks, and relationships must fit in form and time into an integrated accomplishment of organizational goals. This function is coordinating, and most theorists have stressed its importance in the administrative process (Sears, 1950:162; Gregg, 1957:307; Simon, 1957:103; Charters, 1964:252; Litterer, 1965:215). Much concern hence exists regarding the devices available for achieving organizational coordination. In the simplest situation (e.g. when behavior of all individuals in a small group are reciprocally visible), self-coordination is clearly possible. However, for more complex situations, Simon (1957: 106) visualizes at least three steps:

> (1) the development of a plan of behavior for all the members of the group (not a set of individual plans for each member); (2) the communication of the relevant portions of this plan to each member, and (3) a willingness on the part of the individual members to permit their behavior to be guided by the plan.

Litterer (1965:223) notes that in "voluntary" coordination, an individual's self-direction is limited by the amount of knowledge he has about his position, group and organizational goals, and relevant organizational and environmental variables, as well as the extent of his identification with the organization. These limitations are offset partly by the existence of decision-guides such as policies and decision-rules which still allow individual discretion. Conversely, "directive" coordination specifies quite definitely what an individual has to do. One form, termed hierarchical, is to link activities directly or indirectly under one central authority. The other form involves the creation of "administrative systems" or formal procedures designed to automatically perform routine coordination.

Charters (1964:258) has identified three major classes of coordinating mechanisms. Two of these are the specification of functional roles, and the investment and allocation of authority and decision-making functions to various offices and committees. The third mechanism involves communication channels linking participants in various parts of the work-flow. "Through the exchange of information, participants can alert one another to contingencies and problems which arise so that they may make mutual adjustments in their cooperations".

Though coordination is a necessary and essential component of the administrative process, there are also real costs involved. These revolve principally around the increased need for communication and decision-making the greater or more complex the coordination. For example, with respect to hierarchical coordination, Blau and Scott (1962:243) have argued that hierarchical differentiation, centralized direction and restricted communication can impede the free flow of information necessary for efficient problem-solving.

(5) Communicating

Viewing the phenomenon from its broadest perspective, Thayer (1961:43) has stated that "communication occurs whenever an individual assigns significance or meaning to an internal or external stimulus". As a recent anthology shows (Budd and Ruben, 1972), scholars from diverse disciplines have evolved particular approaches for understanding the communication process. For organization analysts, communicating in administration is a sine qua non. Thus Barnard (1938:9) listed it as one of the three essential elements of a formal organization, serving to make known to organization members the purposes of their cooperative

actions. To Simon (1957:154), it is the process whereby decisional premises are transmitted among organizational members.

Most commonly, communication phenomena have been studied in terms of formal and informal channels of communication. The formal channels, based on the formal organizational structure, are classified as vertical (downward or upward) and horizontal communication (Simpson, 1959). Downward flows include instructions, policies, and news about daily organizational activities to subordinates, while upward flows allow them to transmit reports, attitudes, grievances, suggestions and other feedback to superordinates. Horizontal communication serves the purposes of coordination. Effective decision-making, as seen earlier, depends on the availability of accurate and relevant information. Thus "the communication structure must ... permit the free flow of information and ideas in all necessary directions: upward, downward, and horizontally" (Gregg, 1957:298). One other formal channel now increasingly stressed concerns external or extra-organizational flows. School administrators, for example, have to maintain public relations activities involving communicating with their schools' publics or communities (Walton, 1969: 128).

Informal channels of communication arise spontaneously out of the social relations constituting the informal organization, and carry the so-called "grapevine" or rumour messages. Davis (1953) notes that informal channels serve primarily personal or individual needs of organizational members, so that the information carried may either reinforce or undermine organizational goals. One constructive function of the informal organization lies in its value as a "barometer" of public opinion in the organization (Simon, 1957:162).

Interpersonal barriers emerge naturally from the fact that each individual possesses a complex of beliefs, values, attitudes, truths and biases serving as a framework for his understanding, assessment or judgement of the world. Where value, attitudinal, or personality conflicts exist between senders and receivers, communication can be adversely affected. It is also hindered by such perceptual distortions as stereotyping, projection and perceptual defense, or simply because what the sender intends is not perceived as such by the receiver (Costello and Zalkind, 1962). Humanistic psychologists (e.g. Rogers,1953) have stressed the importance of trust in facilitating open and supportive communications. Where a climate of trust is absent, communication tends to be defensive and ineffective, or even destructive (Gibb, 1961). Apart from organizational and interpersonal barriers, communication barriers may also stem from the individual's technical or cognitive ability to receive or transmit information, limitations of time and money making communication less complete than desirable, and the use of communication media or vehicles inappropriate to the situation.

Much of the preceding discussion applies not only to verbal but also to non-verbal communication, a domain of communication theory being given increasing attention (Harrison, 1972; Miller, 1973). Non-verbal communication includes pictures, clothing and body orientation, eye movements, paralanguage (e.g. stress, inflection, juncture and non-word vocalizations), tactile contact, gestures and spatial relations. Unlike verbal communication, some non-verbal cues may operate at very low levels of awareness, that is, the sender himself is not aware consciously of his transmission of non-verbal messages.

A large number of studies in non-verbal communication deal, in

fact, with problems and issues in the field of cross-cultural communication. Researchers in "proxemics" (Hall, 1968; Watson and Graves, 1966) have shown that in a cross-cultural interaction, interactants may lack insight into each other's use of space, causing misunderstandings. Arabs, Latin Americans, Indonesians and Africans, for example, favour closer spatial relations than Americans. Body movements and gestural motions can also be culturally bound, so that a movement or gesture acceptable in one society might be quite unacceptable in another (Birdwhistell, 1968). Likewise, differences between cultures in the use of time provide a well-known difficulty in cross-cultural communication (Hall, 1959: 23-41).

For the sojourner in a new cultural environment, such as a newly arrived foreign student, such barriers in non-verbal communication contribute in part to the phenomenon of "culture shock", where anxiety results from the loss of one's familiar cues to social interactions (Oberg, 1960; Smalley, 1963). Not knowing the language of the host country is an obvious example of verbal communication barrier for such students. Two psychologists, Brein and David (1971) have in fact viewed the successful adjustment of a sojourner as being dependent upon the whole framework of communication, verbal and non-verbal, between the sojourner and the members of the host country. They argue that effective communication overcoming verbal and non-verbal barriers will help promote interpersonal understanding, and hence the sojourner-host relationships which facilitate adjustment to the intercultural experience.

(6) Evaluation

The analytic conception of evaluation, though ubiquitous, is

credited with more than one definition. Guba (1969) notes that each approach has both advantages and disadvantages. The early method of measuring "objective", quantitative data, for example, unrealistically avoided value-judgements as well as data not easily quantifiable. Evaluation by determining the congruence between performance and behavioral objectives suffered from the tendency to emphasize terminal behaviors, thus disregarding valuable feedback that could be used to refine the ongoing program. Where evaluation depended on professional judgement of the application process rather than the results, the inherent uncertainty, ambiguity and implicitness render such methods less than satisfactory.

In recent years, spurred in part by the demand for accountability in education, and by the need to judge the worthwhileness of new programs or devices, a technology of evaluation can be said to have sprung up.[1] Some stimulus undoubtedly also came from the increased emphasis on planning which, as already noted, requires in one of its steps the designing of evaluation procedures. Part of this new technology involves fresh definitions and models (Taylor and Maguire, 1966; Stake, 1967; Metfessel and Michael, 1967; Scriven, 1967; Provus, 1969; Stufflebeam, 1968; Johnson, 1970) which have attempted to achieve more comprehensiveness and to overcome the disadvantages embodied in earlier approaches. Though differences in specifics exist, some common features are increasingly evident.

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[1] See, for example, the collection of papers in Vol. II of the Educational Technology Reviews Series (Educational Technology Publications, 1973) and in the 1969 NSSE Yrbk. Part II (Tyler, 1969)

Most obvious, perhaps, is the distinction between formative evaluation, and summative evaluation. The latter, predominant until recently, evaluates terminal outcomes or products of a program course or a certain period of instruction (e.g. a school year). In contrast, formative evaluation is an ongoing process occurring in a continuous fashion throughout the educational activity. It thus serves to refine and optimize the activity through a process of reiterative feedback. Bloom (1969:48-50) has delineated a number of advantages accruing from formative evaluation in the teaching-learning classroom process. It has also been considered a must in the development of new curriculum programs, since the continuous feedback allows the innovation to be improved concomitant with its trial (Flanagan, 1969).

> Both administrators and researchers must see evaluation as a continuous information-management process which serves program-improvement as well as program-assessment purposes (Provus, 1969: 283).

The new approaches are also reflective of ideas embodied in general systems theory (Kast and Rosenzweig, 1972). Indeed the continuous feedback demanded in formative evaluation constitutes a way by which "open systems" maintain dynamic equilibrium. Placed in the evaluation context, the systems approach may be regarded

> as essentially a point of view which involved taking into account the full complexity of a goal-directed or problem-solving activity -- its starting point, its environmental context, its constraints, its interactions with external features and the interrelationships between its internal components -- in developing and assessing alternative solutions (Johnson, 1970:14).

One example is Stake's evaluation model, which requires both description and judgement of three sets of data: antecedents, or conditions existing prior to teaching and learning which may relate to

outcomes; transactions, or the succession of engagements which comprise the educational process; and the outcomes. The evaluator, in Stake's scheme, should also identify outcomes contingent upon particular antecedent conditions and instructional transactions. Rather similar to Stake's model but more operationally specific and appropriate for program or curriculum development is the Provus (1969) "discrepancy model". Provus evaluates data classified under Inputs, Processes, and Outcomes along four stages of the program's development: Definition, Installation, Process and Product. For each class of data at each stage, the actual performance of the program is compared with an established standard. If a discrepancy is detected, corrective action is taken to bridge the gap. As befits a systems model, the established standards themselves are subject to modification in the light of actual performance.

Also systematic and comprehensive in approach is Stufflebeam's (1968) CIPP evaluation model. To Stufflebeam, evaluation means "the provision of information, through formal means such as criteria, measurement, and statistics, to serve as a rational basis for making judgements in decision situations". The model posits four strategies for evaluating educational programs; context, input, process and product evaluation. These serve respectively four categories of decisions: planning (defining problems, goals and objectives), programming (detailing strategies); implementing strategies; and recycling (terminating, continuing, evolving, or changing). Context evaluation thus aims at defining the environment, where change is to occur, in terms of its needs, underlying problems, and opportunities

for change. Input evaluation then follows to "identify and assess system capabilities, available input strategies, and designs for implementing the strategies". When the program has been implemented, process evaluation relates outcome information to objectives and to context, input and process information.

Another important issue in evaluation theory is that of "who evaluates?". Johnson (1970:16) points out that the outside evaluator, being uninvolved in the program under evaluation, can ensure objectivity and is less likely to be distracted by operational problems or responsibilities. However, he may be hampered by not knowing the program well, more likely to interfere with program operation by setting up special control or measurement conditions or by imposing his value structure on the program, and may cause resentment or anxiety among the program staff by his evaluating activities. Conversely an inside evaluator who is on staff, will know or appreciate the project more, be familiar to staff, and entail less expense. An insider, however, is closely involved and may find it difficult to evaluate in an objective fashion. Given such relative strengths and weaknesses, Johnson argues that

> in formative evaluation, which is interactive with program design and operation, much more of an internally conducted evaluation would be appropriate; while summative evaluation, being more dependent upon objectivity, should strive to maintain an external frame of reference.

Stake and Denny (1969), deploring the frequent "informal, intuitive monitoring by teacher, students and administrators" posing as educational evaluation, have suggested the training of evaluation specialists capable of systematic evaluation.

ADMINISTRATIVE TASK-AREAS

The day-to-day functioning of any complex organization involves a number of specific areas of operation in each of which several but related tasks are performed. These task-areas provide a convenient taxonomic framework for viewing administrative activity, and have been employed most commonly in the educational setting. Corbally, Jensen and Staub (1961), for example, identified the areas of instructional leadership, staff personnel, management (of school plant, finance, and equipment), and school-community relations. In another text (Miller, Madden and Kincheloe, 1972), tasks are grouped under the areas of pupil personnel, program of instruction, staff personnel, auxiliary services, school housing, finance, and measurement and evaluation. A scheme which has become quite popular is that of Campbell et al. (1971:136). These researchers chose six task-areas: school-community relationships, curriculum and instruction, pupil personnel, staff personnel, physical facilities, finance and business management. It is obvious from the examples that little variance exists on what constitute the significant task-areas of educational administration.

The tasks located in the area of school-community relationships arise naturally from the fact that an educational organization such as a school or university is a social institution. It is thus unavoidably linked with the individuals or community it serves. The educational program for instance needs to be explained to the public, and public reactions to and support for the program sought. In the area of curriculum and instruction, administrative tasks include planning and

organizing the total educational program, maintaining coordination among its different parts, and evaluating its performance. Related to pupil personnel, there are tasks such as pupil inventory and organization, assessing and reporting pupils' progress, maintaining pupil records and discipline, and provision of pupil personnel services. (e.g. guidance and counselling).

The administration of staff personnel involves recruiting, assigning, and supervising staff, as well as coordinating the functions of different individuals. With respect to physical facilities, such tasks as planning the use of space and equipment, and administering the actual operation and maintenance of the school plant, are clearly necessary. The running of an educational organization entails costs and hence administrative activities of a business nature. Preparation and administration of a budget, and management of the financial accounts are the major tasks in the task-area of finances.

From this brief discussion, it is seen that the various components of the administrative process are, to varying degrees and form, involved in each of the task-areas of educational administration. Utilizing essentially the taxonomy of Campbell et al. (1971:136), the six task-areas relevant to an aid study program such as the Uganda Project, are hence student personnel, staff personnel, curriculum, finance, physical plant, and university-community relationships. The latter category is, of course, an adaptation of the "school-community relationships" task-area in the Campbell taxonomy, since the Project was held in a university.

THE ADMINISTRATIVE PROCESS IN AID STUDY PROGRAMS

In the preceding discussion, the meaning of the administrative process was spelled out from a general frame of reference. An 'ideal profile' of the administrative process in the context of aid study programs may now be sketched. At the outset, two structural characteristics need to be delineated. One is that the "social system" of a bilateral aid study or training program typically involves four major organizational intermediaries: the aid-agency of the donor nation; the overseas diplomatic mission of the donor nation to the recipient nation; a governmental Ministry or other official institution of the recipient nation; and the educational or training institution in the donor nation. Then, an aid study program may or may not be organized as a temporary system during its operation at the educational or training institution. A special project, for example, is usually organized around a definite temporary structure. On the other hand, there are many sponsored students who are simply enrolled within the regular institutional programs of study. The ensuing discussion may be considered to apply more to aid programs utilizing temporary systems, though the differences are of content rather than form.

The very first step in the process consists of planning the program or project, and ideally all three organizational intermediaries participate in such planning. When plans have been made, organizing proceeds. This involves not only the organizing of staff and administrative personnel at the educational or training institution, but also organizing the participating student personnel who have to be selected. Reception, orientation and other student personal

services[1] too need to be organized, and typically community resources are called upon to participate. Community relationships take on a special dimension in aid study programs since contact between the students and the community is, in fact, one form of cross-cultural communication.

Once the program or project is under way, formative evaluation is needed to continuously monitor its progress and to modify, change, or improve procedures and content. At the end of the program, summative evaluation must be undertaken to assess its short-term and long-term results and impact. Follow-through[1] of returned participants should also be carried out.

Given the involvement of four organizational intermediaries, it follows that coordinating the affiliations among them is absolutely necessary. Coordination is particularly important at the planning stage, since needs, goals, and objectives must be clarified and mutually understood by all parties concerned. Also, during selection, the training institution need to be assured that those selected have at least minimum qualifications for the training. During the course of training or study, there is also the task of internal coordination among the staff and administrative personnel groups within the training institution. The activities of the instructional staff, for example, have to be coordinated to give an integrated curriculum. Coordination is required too among academic personnel, student advising personnel,

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[1] A discussion of such activities and services is found in the review of related literature in Chapter 3.

and community resource groups.

Throughout the course of the project or program, effective communication among all organizational intermediaries is essential for proper coordination. Administrators and staff personnel will also have to contend with problems of cross-cultural communication affecting both the students or trainees, and themselves. Decision-making, of course, is a continuous activity in the administrative process, though who among the organizational intermediaries, makes what decisions is a crucial administrative issue. Another important issue concerns the quality of the decision-making in terms of the information available for effective decision-making. In sum, the administrative process provides a convenient conceptual framework for systematic analysis of the administration of aid study programs.

RESTATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

As stated earlier, the purposes of this study are two-fold:

(1) to describe the essential aspects of the Uganda-Canada Primary Teacher Training Project in topical form organized under various administrative task-areas;

(2) to analyze the administrative process of the Project, and provides a generalization as to its efficiency and effectiveness.

In the light of the preceding discussion, the second objective may now be restated in more specific terms as a series of questions under the six components of the administrative process selected to form the conceptual framework of the study.

(1) Planning

What was the degree of comprehensiveness of the planning for and in the Project?

Which of the four organizational intermediaries involved in the Porject, namely the Ugandan Ministry of Education, the External Aid Office, the Canadian High Commission in Dar-es-Salaam, and The University of Alberta, participated in what aspects of the planning?

(2) Organizing

What roles did the various components of the "formal organization" and the "informal organization" play in the operation of the Project?

What conflicts emerged during the administration of the Project?

What was the effectiveness and efficiency of the Project as defined by Barnard and interpreted by the Getzels-Guba social behavior model?

What was the utility of the temporary system structure employed in the Project?

What follow-through activities were conducted on returned trainees?

(3) Decision-making

What decisions were made by each of the four organizational intermediaries?

What was the "quality" of decision-making?

(4) Coordinating

What was the nature, and the problems of coordination which existed among the organizational intermediaries?

What was the quality of coordination within, and among the instructional and student personnel services components of the Project during its operation at The University of Alberta?

(5) Communicating

What was the nature and the quality of the communication channels among the organizational intermediaries?

What problems of cross-cultural communication arose during the operation of the Project?

(6) Evaluating

What formative evaluation activities were conducted during the program of study and training?

What summative evaluation was carried out at the end of the Project, and after the trainees returned home?

SUMMARY

This chapter has delineated the conceptual framework within which the administration of the Uganda Project will be narrated and analyzed. In this study, the "administrative process" is considered to be a concept consisting of six selected components, each being seen to constitute a complex of administrative activities. Thus systematic planning requires not only specification of goals and objectives, and selection of means to attain these, but also designing of arrangements for obtaining required resources, for implementation of the plan, and for continual checking of results. Organizing, which may involve temporary systems, blends human and material resources in both the formal and informal organization. Its quality is assessable by the

concepts of effectiveness and efficiency defined by Barnard and as interpreted by the Getzels-Guba social behavior model.

The process of decision-making is seen to be dependent upon the amount of relevant information on which a decision is based, while participation of organizational members who are to implement the decision, in the process, is recommended in much of prevailing writings. Co-ordinating functions to keep organizational "parts" in harmony, and may be achieved by such devices as an overall plan guiding actions of all parts, a central authority, and mutual exchange of information among the parts. Communicating needs to be free and open, in upward, downward, horizontal, and external flows so as to enhance the quality of decision-making. Its quality is affected by mechanical, organizational and interpersonal barriers. In cross-cultural situations, communicating, including the non-verbal process, may involve difficulties owing to differences in values, perceptions, and other culture-bound elements. Evaluating is seen to be distinguishable as formative and summative, and current recognition of its importance has resulted in more comprehensive and sound evaluation models.

Given such a conceptual framework, it was thus possible to reformulate the research problem in terms of a series of questions related to the six selected "administrative process" components. An attempt to answer these questions on the basis of the available evidence is found in Chapter 6. There was also a discussion in this chapter on the taxonomy of six administrative task-areas that will be used to narrate the events which occurred during the Project.

Chapter 3

REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

All foreign students, whether sponsored or private arrive in their country of study or training with a "predisposition" of attitudes, beliefs and values characterising their home cultures and societies. Ample research has shown that such "predisposition" impinges on both academic and non-academic aspects of a foreign student's sojourn. Because the study focuses on Ugandan trainees, some understanding of the cultural and social make-up of Uganda (as it was described in the fifties and early sixties)[1] is thus important. A look at Uganda's educational development around the same time also helps to place the genesis of this particular aid project in a realistic perspective, while pertinent knowledge of the school system bears upon the "appropriateness" of the curriculum offered in the aid program. Finally, the literature on educational assistance, as well as the copious researches into foreign students affairs, are reviewed and filtered to gain insights relevant to the administration of aid-study or training programs.

THE UGANDAN CONTEXT

General, Social and Cultural Background

Uganda occupies about 94,000 square miles of the Central

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[1] since the Project was initiated in 1964.

African tableland with its capital, Kampala, approximately 900 miles from the East African coast. The country is mostly at 4,000 feet elevation, enjoying temperatures between 60^{o} and 80^{o}. Bordering nations are Kenya, Sudan, Rwanda, Congo, and Tanzania. The first European explorers arrived in 1862. Buganda, the largest province, formally accepted British influence in 1890, and by 1914, Uganda was a full-fledged protectorate. Independence was attained on October 9, 1962.

The economy is agriculture- based, with coffee and cotton as the main cash-crops. Secondary activities include tea, sugar, and tobacco-planting, some cattle-rearing, and fishing on the country's extensive lakes. The staple foods are millet and bananas. Cassava, beans, groundnuts and maize are also grown for domestic use. Over 95% of the population live in rural areas, usually on scattered small holdings. In 1959, out of six and a half million Ugandans, only about 1.5-2% were of East Indian ethnicity, while Eruopeans added up to less than 0.02%. Participation in the commercial and industrial economic sectors was skewed, however, towards the Asian Ugandans, who occupied almost half of some four thousand skilled manual jobs (Thomas, 1965).

Uganda is a country in which live as many as twenty-eight different tribes. Of these, the Baganda or people of Buganda are the most numerous. Great linguistic diversity prevails among the tribes. Ladefoged, Glick and Criper (1972) identified twenty-four separate languages which classify to give four major groups: Bantu, Sudanic, Eastern Nilotic, Western Nilotic. The first three groups are totally different, while the third and fourth are as like French and English. Luganda, language of the Baganda, is also used or known outside Buganda

since it served as a language of administration during early British-Uganda contact. Apart from the tribal languages, Swahili represents a "neutral" language which saw only minor use in the early sixties. Among the Asian Ugandans, Gujerati and Hindustani are the main languages spoken.

Language is only one aspect, though, of any culture. As Kluckohn and Kelly (1945:97) have said, the concept culture embodies

> all the historically created designs for living, explicit and implicit, rational, irrational and non-rational, which may exist at any given time as potential guides for the behavior of men.

Anthropologists have consequently looked at such designs as language, political and economic organization, family and kinship grouping, marriage, child-rearing, and religion within a culture in order to describe and understand the whole.

In Uganda, the tribal diversity among the African peoples cannot strictly be interpreted as cultural diversity[1]. Distinct differences in some designs do exist of course between groups of tribes or individual tribes, notably in language as seen above, and in the political organization. Thus Bantu-speaking tribes (e.g. Baganda, Bunyoro) tend to have a centralized tribal state, whereas non-Bantu

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[1] The ensuing discussion is based on several anthropological studies of various Ugandan tribes, including the Baganda (Mair, 1965; Fallers, 1959), Bunyoro (Beattie, 1960; 1964), Lugbara (Middleton, 1965), Madi (Middleton, 1955), Chiga (Edel, 1933), Karimonjong (Persse, 1934), Acholi (Girling, 1960), Iteso (Lawrance, 1957), Lango (Butt, 1952), Banyankole (Roscoe, 1915), and Busoga (Fallers, 1955). Some of these studies are comprehensive in scope; others deal only with specific cultural characteristics of a tribe. The description is also essentially that of "traditional" Ugandan culture, not likely to be unfamiliar to the trainees who were mostly born before 1950. This does not deny, of course, that by that time, some of the traditional elements have been supplanted or at least modified by Western beliefs and practices such as Christianity and monogamous marriage.

tribes (e.g. Lugbara, Iteso) are traditionally more diffuse, decentralized. and egalitarian in political organization.

Beyond such differences, however, there are many noticeable cultural similarities among all the tribes. In social organization, for example, the extended patriachial family is the rule, while patrilineal exogamous clans play important maintenance roles through the cooperative responsibilities of clan members in ritual observances, settling inter-household disputes, and mutual aid. Marriage is traditionally polygamous, entails a bride-price, and involves an elaborate ceremonial. The states of pregnancy and birth are also accompanied by various taboos and rituals. Child-rearing practices, such as physical handling of a baby, appear casual by Western standards. Traditional African religion embodies strong beliefs in ancestor-spirits, animism, superstitions and taboos, and supernatural phenomena associated with sustenance (e.g. rain-making; crop protection), offense and defense (e.g. charms).

Such common cultural characteristics among different tribes thus make it possible to speak of a traditional "Ugandan culture" which when compared to say, "American cultural patterns" (Stewart, 1971) clearly reveal a very different way of life. Among Ugandans themselves, tribal identification nevertheless promotes an acute sense of "difference" not conducive to political unity. As recently as 1970, the study of Ladefoged, Glick and Criper (1972) showed that most African Ugandans, rather than have another native language (e.g. Luganda) as the official or national language, preferred to accord English this status. Another source of political disharmony arises from the collaborative role Buganda played in helping to extend British rule throughout Uganda, so that a general distrust and suspicion of

the Baganda is more or less held by their neighbours (Burke, 1964:14).

The Asian Ugandans, in turn, are not only distinctly culturally different from the Africans, but are also separate economically, socially and politically. Under British rule, both the Hindus and Muslims prospered, and eventually dominated commerce and industry. Such prosperity became a source of envy and distrust to the Africans, who believed that "the Indians had exploited them commercially and kept them out of their rightful place in life" (Morris, 1968:178). In sum, when Uganda's first Independent government attained power in 1962, it was unavoidably confronted with rather difficult tribal-, and racial-based problems of national unity.

Educational Development in Uganda[1]

In the early years of colonization, the provision of formal education was left to missionaries whose rivalries often resulted in two or three denominational schools in the same area. Asian Ugandans and Europeans also formed their own schools. Uganda's educational system thus developed along communal and religous lines, and it was not until 1957 that the government formulated an integration policy. Up till about 1967, the school system for African Ugandans had an eight-year elementary program: 6 years "primary" and 2 years "junior secondary". Instruction began in the vernacular, but shifted to English in the fifth year. The first four years of senior secondary school led to the Cambridge School Certificate; two further years gave the

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[1] Much of the basic discussion is drawn from four sources: Sloan (1962); Scanlon (1964); Sasnett and Sepmeyer (1966); and Williams (1966).

successful pupil a Higher School Certificate. Entry into both junior secondary, and senior secondary schools were screened by highly selective public examinations. Except for a slightly shorter primary program, the Asian school system was similarly structured. Further education was at Makarere University College[1] for those holding Higher School Certificates, and in various teacher-training, technical and vocational centres, colleges, or institutions according to the exit qualifications of the pupil.

Educational planning in Uganda was first seriously launched in 1952 through the Report of the deBunsen Committee on "African education in Uganda". Its main recommendations included the reorganization and enlargement of the teacher-training system, improvement of the teaching service, expansion of secondary education, establishment of new primary schools, and the improvement of facilities for girls. The Report stimulated rapid expansion, especially in primary education[2], until the late fifties, when economic recession forced re-thinking of policies. The government's decision was to limit primary level growth in favour of secondary and tertiary level expansion. This policy was endorsed by a Mission of the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development in 1962, and in 1963 by the Ugandan Education Commission. As advocates of manpower planning pointed out, a severe shortage of secondary school

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[1] The Ugandan constituent of the University of East Africa.

[2] In 1961, for example, the proportion of the relevant age-group enrolled in Primary 1 to 6 was about 50% compared to about 7% and 0.9% respectively in junior-secondary school, and senior secondary school (Scanlon, 1964:15)

graduates existed in the Ugandan labour market (Thomas, 1965). A bigger flow from the secondary system would not only supply middle-level manpower in the economy and entrants to higher education, but also the teachers for the school system itself.

In addition, there was a felt need to consolidate the existing primary system, where the rapid expansion had led to a fall of standards and wastage problems. The 1963 Uganda Education Commission voiced a serious concern that

> the quality of the work in the schools is not nearly as good as it ought to be. The immediate task before the nation is not just to provide more primary schools but to provide better primary education (Williams, 1966:65).

Part of the wastage, as reflected in high drop-out and repeating rates, stemmed from inadequacies of teacher preparation. Thus vernacular teachers, with Grade I teaching certificates, and responsible for Primary 1 and 2, had only a six-year primary school education followed by a one-year training program. Though recruitment for training of Grade I teachers ceased in 1958, such teachers still comprised 38% of the primary teaching force in 1964. Grade II teachers were relatively not much better qualified, since their duties extended to Primary 6. Prior to 1965, their average qualifications were six years primary schooling plus four years in a training college. The methods of teacher-training also encouraged an attitude of uncritical acceptance of text material, and lack of imagination among the trainees (Ladefoged, Glick and Criper, 1972:105). This led in turn to "sterile" non-adaptive teaching in classrooms where rote-learning was over-emphasized.

Other problems related to the efficiency of primary education at the time included: the excessive turnover of teaching staff, partly due to absorption into politics and administration; difficulties

experienced by pupils in shifting from vernacular to English; poor physical conditions in the schools (e.g. lack of teaching-learning materials; no proper classrooms); hunger and malnutrition among the pupils. Many of these problems were acknowledged in the 1963 Report of the Ugandan Education Commission. By 1960-1961, Uganda was already expending 24% of her total budget on education. Unit costs were very expensive, however, owing to the high teachers' salaries relative to national income, extravagant school-plant construction and maintenance incongrously modelled on "rich-nation standards", and high teacher-pupil ratios due to sectarian duplication of primary schools and the constricted secondary school enrolment. The reduction of unit costs in educational expenditure was hence another area of legitimate concern.

From this brief review of Uganda's educational development, it is seen that during the early sixties, problem-areas were quite clearly delineable. Indeed, many of the problems, especially those related to improvement of the "educational pyramid shape" were well-known to the Ugandans themselves. The major priorities centred on meeting manpower requirements of an economy demanding production of sufficient numbers of secondary school graduates suitable for technical or professional training. However, there was also official concern with improvement of the quality and efficiency of primary education.

EDUCATIONAL AID PROGRAMS: SOME PROBLEMS, ISSUES AND CRITERIA

Introduction

Educational aid today encompasses a variety of forms. Notably, there is sponsored study or training in the donor country, and more

recently in a "third country". An example is CIDA's (1972) sponsorship of African students for university training in an African country other than their own. Secondly, educational experts may be provided to advise in areas such as educational planning, innovation and technology. More visible, perhaps, are the many school-teachers, teacher-trainers, and university professors who are recruited from the donor nations for short-term aid service. Fourthly, educational resources such as books, class or laboratory equipment, and school-building materials have been provided as educational assistance.

The administration of educational aid programs are typically complex operations, meeting numerous problems. From their experiences and research, scholars and administrators have raised various issues and questions of policy and implementation, and formulated insights into criteria or principles for more effective aid strategies. Many of these issues, problems, and criteria fall outside the scope of this study and will not be discussed in detail here. There are, for example, a host of issues related to the role of the foreign educational expert or adviser (Zachariah, 1969), and to the supply of overseas teachers (Cerych, 1965:118-128). Importation of teaching material, curricula and new educational technology into a developing country raises questions of relevance and cost-feasibility (Cerych, 1965:138-149). Coordination problems also result from the presence of many donors in a recipient country, as Williams (1966:109-114) has succintly illustrated in the case of Uganda.

In the ensuing discussion, literature pertinent to the scope of this study are reviewed under two headings: valid criteria for educational aid, and the administration of aid study or training programs.

Valid Criteria for Educational Aid

Preceding the detailed planning of any aid program or project, it is logical that a rational decision should first be made on whether or not the program or project constitutes "effective aid". Since the early sixties, the search for answers to educational aid problems, as well as the evolution of theory on development in the so-called "Third World" nations, have generated various criteria for making such decisions. Among the earliest to appear emerged out of a Carnegie Corporation-sponsored conference at Williamsburg, Virginia in 1962, including such guidelines as

> ... any condition placed by the donor on the giving of aid should have the sole purpose of contributing to educational advance ... national manpower requirements should guide educational planning... educational planning must be integrated with other aspects of national development ... various levels and parts of the educational system must be integrated (Marvel, 1962).

Criteria of this kind were essentially to re-appear in the writings of such well-known experts as Coombs (1965b), Cerych (1965), Benveniste (1965), Williams (1965) and Phillips (1973). A highly articulate discussion comes from Cerych (1965:194), whose pioneering systematic survey and analysis of educational aid problems generated five "principles" or criteria:

(A) External aid to education should be given priority for sectors and projects with the highest possible multiplying effect.
(B) Priority in external aid should be given to projects which are soundly integrated in the development of the whole education system, and whose completion is an immediate need for the economic and social development of the recipient country.
(C) Priority for external aid to education should be given to sectors and projects whose expansion and completion can only be ensured by external aid since local resources to take its place are at present either inadequate or totally lacking.
(D) Priority for external aid to education should be given to governments, institutions or persons demonstrating genuine concern and capacity for educational development.

(E) Priority for external aid should be given to projects the completion of which improves the quality of, or makes an important innovation in the educational system of the recipient country.

Sectors with high "multiplying effect" are those whose activities have wide influences on the rest of the educational system, such as teacher training, higher educational institutions, educational planning, curriculum reform, introduction of new teaching media, and textbook preparation (Cerych, 1965:195). Criterion (B) implies the existence of some form of institutionalized planning in the recipient nation, and is clearly necessary if aid is not to be dysfunctional, such as creating wasteful imbalances within the system, or a mass of unemployed educated (Coombs, 1970:26-30). Criterion (C) means that "educational projects involving a high foreign exchange component or a substantial degree of advice and knowledge not available locally" (e.g. science and technology teachers; laboratory equipment) are preferred (Cerych, 1965:197). Cerych is aware though that models transferred from the developed nations may be ill-adapted to the developing countries' needs.

The difficulty of evaluating "genuine concern and capacity for educational development" as required by criterion (D) is also recognized by Cerych, but he offers no ready solution. Criterion (E) is to Cerych probably the most important, since without quality (no matter how much quantity) an educational system will not be able to produce graduates with sufficient knowledge, skills and even motivations essential for "modern economic and social development". Other aid experts more or less endorse these five criteria, while proposing additional ones. Thus, Williams (1965:51) warned that criteria, if over-rigid, disallow quick "rescue" or "pumping" operations which

fulfill an important role in aid. "Greater flexibility seemed to be required to permit allocations for short-term operations of special urgency, which can resolve bottlenecks". Phillips (1973:61) expressed the concern that

> new institutions or methods introduced should be of a kind which it is within the power of the recipient country to keep up when the aid terminates; that it [a good education project] should have a catalytic effect, which means that it must have the necessary critical mass and duration to have a sizable impact (alone or through complementarity with other aid projects) and not to peter out; also it should take care not only of the direct needs but of those created by the repercussions of the direct aid (package projects)

The existence of criteria poses, however, one fundamental question of value: "Is the donor entitled to impose his own criteria and principles and thus determine what is or is not good for education in the receiving country?" (Cerych, 1965:203). Most aid experts seem to agree that the final decisions on an area with such great public concern and political ramifications as education should be made by a country's own leaders. Nevertheless, they would also agree with Cerych's argument that

> it is natural and even essential for the donor to concern himself with the effectiveness of his aid, and to refuse it where the return seems to be negligible or possibly negative, even if the benefiting country asserts otherwise.

The Administration of Aid Study/Training[1] Programs

The phenomenal growth in the foreign student population in developed nations since 1945 has been accompanied by substantial research into issues and problems of "educational exchange", as evident from the several bibliographies available (Crabbs and Holmquist, 1967; Giacalone

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[1] For convenience, referred to simply as "aid study programs" in the discussion.

and Davis, 1967; Spencer and Awe, 1968). Since students on aid sponsorship are also foreign students[1], such research does furnish useful insights into the administration of aid-study programs, particularly in the task-areas of student and staff personnel, curriculum and community relationships. Other relevant, though less abundant literature include direct accounts of one or more specific aspects of aid-study programs or projects, as well as broad "armchair analyses" by international scholars and expert. Much of the literature reviewed emerged out of the American experience, and in general, a scarcity of relevant studies in the Canadian context exists. Several sub-categories have been employed to distinguish the significant areas of concern within the framework of this study.

Selection. The success of an aid-study program depends significantly on the "quality" of the participant students or trainees. Selection thus aims fundamentally at choosing those students most likely to succeed. Typically, the criterion most emphasized is the academic/professional qualifications of the candidate. Murphy, writing on "African exchange problems" in 1960, noted that lack of information on standards and qualifications of education in Africa was largely responsible for the past inability of most American colleges and scholarship agencies to set up definite admissions criteria for African students. This situation has been partly ameliorated by the increasing

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[1] The proportion of government-sponsored students is usually only a fraction of the total foreign student population of any developed nation. For example, in 1968, there were 27,263 private compared to 1,599 sponsored foreign students in Canada (Walmsley, 1970:120,264). Some private students however hold scholarships awarded by private sources, notably by universities for graduate studies.

activities of comparative and international educationists, an example being Sasnett and Sepmeyer's (1966) mammoth description of African educational systems. Government-sponsored training workshops in the evaluation of educational credentials of developing nations have also been held for U.S. university and college foreign student admissions officers (Dremuk, 1967). More directly, university faculty visit the aid-receiving country to personally assist in selecting the scholarship students, as in The University of Alberta Thailand Comprehensive School Project (Gue, 1972:31).

English-speaking donor nations have tended to stress the importance of a candidate's proficiency in English. It is argued that such proficiency is essential not only for academic work, but also for forming good social relations (Lesser and Peter, 1957:177). To evaluate this criterion, a number of objective tests have been devised e.g. TOEFL (Testing of English as a Second Language), and ALI (American Language Institute Test). Empirical evidence on the correlation between academic achievement with such language proficiency scores is, however, mixed, with some studies indicating high correlation and others low correlation (Gue and Holdaway, 1973).

Strain (1967) has warned that stress on English competence can bias selection towards people who may not be best in their fields, nor typical of their country, since in non-English speaking developing nations, often only the top socio-economic families have access to preparatory English education. This was borne out in the experience of an oil company selecting Venezuelan students for sponsored training in the United States (Dembo, 1965). If aid is not to further solidify

the gap between the elites and the masses in developing nations, there seems therefore to be a case for considering the socio-economic status of the student, by emphasizing poor but talented individuals.

The process of selection itself ideally involves extensive collaboration between officials of the recipient country, those in the donor country's aid agency, and representatives of the educational institution which the student will attend. Procedures that have been used in U.S. aid programmes are instructive. For example, the Nigerian-American Scholarship Program (Henry, 1960) utilized the following steps: establishment of a scholarship board in Nigeria mainly of Nigerian educators and a few U.S. university and consulate officials; setting of minimum criteria for accepting applications by cooperating U.S. universities themselves; open advertisement of scholarships; screening of initial applicants by the Board to sit for the Preliminary Scholastic Aptitude test set by cooperating universities; further screening of students qualifying from the test by the Board, at an interview where academic qualifications, principal-teachers' reports, and interview impressions are considered; final selection from the Board's short-list by representatives of the cooperating universities at a meeting in New York. Similarly rigorous selection screening is found in ASPAU, the African Scholarship Program of American Universities (Wilcox, 1966).

Orientation. A well documented phenomenon experienced by a sojourner on arrival in an alien cultural environment is "culture shock" (Oberg, 1960; Smalley, 1963). Lundstet (1963:3) describes it as

> a form of personality maladjustment which is a reaction to a temporarily unsuccessful attempt to adjust to new surroundings and people. Instead of absorbing new stess successfully, the person becomes anxious, confused, and often appears apathetic. The symptoms ... are usually accompanied by a subjective feeling of loss, and a sense of isolation and loneliness often called homesickness.

For foreign students, an orientation program to welcome them, and help them become familiar with the new situation has therefore been deemed essential. Both Lundstet (1962:3) and Klein et al. (1971:84) believes that orientation could reduce the typical patterns of foreign student withdrawal into co-national subgroups which tend to limit the inter-cultural social experiences of the student. Cormack (1963:12) has proposed that the initial orientation should permit a process of "cultural comparison" aimed at understanding the large gap which

> lies between the personalities related to familial or tribal social structures with paternalistic styles of life and the more autonomous personalities in urban-industrial societies.

Apart from assisting social-psychological adjustment, orientation is also valuable in introducing the foreign student to his new academic environment. The style and expectations of teaching and learning, as well as the language of instruction, may differ markedly from that at home. Using orientation for increasing facility in the host country's language is consequently emphasized (NAFSA, 1964). Most commonly, the orientation program is held just prior to opening of registration and the formal academic year, though some writers have also noted the value of a pre-departure or at-home orientation (Lesser and Peter, 1957; Klein, 1971).

Sojourners, after a period of stay in an alien environment, may "resocialize" and acquire interaction patterns compatible with the new social system (Gullahorn and Gullahorn, 1963:39). Consequently, the

foreign student on returning home, may experience some sort of "reverse culture shock". To cushion such shock of re-entry, some analysts have deemed pre-orientation essential. Cormack (1963:14) considers it "a psychological closure to the American experience and a psychological bridging to life and work back home". Lesser and Peter (1957:181) see the need for returning students to reflect on ways of adapting and communicating knowledge learned to home situations. Such "reflection" happens during the pre-departure communications seminars commonly organized by the U.S. Agency for International Development for its returning trainees, who are assisted by communication specialists (Sinauer, 1967:18). A question may be raised here, of course, if such reflection should not already be occurring throughout the training or study program itself.

Follow-through. Anticipation of re-entry problems for the returning student, especially those experiencing prolonged absences from home home, has led some aid observers to argue that additional to pre-return orientation, the returnee should also receive follow-through support when he begins work. Follow-through can be defined as all those activities initiated in the donor country, or by its overseas missions, by which returned trainees and students are encouraged to maintain contact with the donor country (MacCormac, 1959:31)[1]. Such activities include informal correspondence between returnees and their ex-

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[1]MacCormac, and some other writers use the term "follow-up" instead of "follow-through". However, as Sinauer (1967:107) suggests, "follow-up" seems better used for evaluation activities aimed at ascertaining what happens to students immediately after return, and at periodic times thereafter.

hosts or teachers, social gatherings at the embassy or mission, publications sent to returnees by former universities, and faculty visits abroad during which they can meet with former trainees or students. According to Lesser and Peter (1957:107), follow-through is

> the one additional measure programme administrators can take to save former students from the frustation likely to ensue if they find no way of using what they have learned and come to the conclusion that they have interrupted their life to no good purpose.

Sinauer's (1967:108) personal experiences of keeping contact with returned trainees for at least one year indicate that follow-through not only provide them "with a sense of continuity and further participation in training" but also suggestions from the trainees, in the light of their work experiences, which are useful for improving the study or training program. In United Kingdom aid programs, the British Council keeps returned trainees in touch with recent developments in their fields of study through library services, films, book presentations and invitations to lectures (P.E.P., 1965:116). Further justification for follow-through comes from Collin's (1969) study of completed U.S. technical assistance programs involving students from thirty recipient countries. The results indicated that the greater the U.S. overseas mission support for returned participants through personal contacts and assistance, the greater the use they will make of their acquired skills and techniques.

In general, however, the literature shows a notable lack of concern and research into the nature, consequences and conditions for success of follow-through. In the context of the long-range effectiveness of aid study programs, such investigation seems essential.

Academic and Non-Academic Problems. With regard to personal or academic problems, no clear distinction between private and sponsored foreign students is usually made, though some private students might be expected to experience more financial stress. Apart from the obvious problems arising from inadequate academic preparation for the field of study, two other major academic problems are underlined in the literature. The first is associated with reading, speaking, and writing English, so that the student has difficulty keeping up with assignments, or participating meaningfully in class discussions (Selltiz et al., 1963: 124; Deutsch, 1970:79; P.E.P., 1965:103). Second is the problem of adjusting to differences between the educational system of the donor or host country and the foreign student's home country, notably in teaching-learning methods (Selltiz et al. 1963:127). For example, Bloom (1969), who supervised a West African student teacher for six months, had difficulty establishing a cooperative complementary relationship with the trainee because she had been brought up in a structured educational system. Interaction between the two developed on a superior-subordinate level inhibiting the student's growth in independence and self-direction. In addition, researchers in cross-cultural learning such as Taba (1955) have pointed out that cultural and affective "sets" invariably condition cognitive learning and perception. Beck (1962) expresses the issue in terms of "social and cultural distance" between the students' home country and host country. The greater this distance

> the fewer identical elements there are between the conceptual systems and the more difficult it will be to learn the cognitive concepts for which the foreign student requires in his examinations and to return home.

Foreign students as a group encounter some non-academic problems which do not generally bother their local counterparts. Empirical studies such as those of Selltiz et al. (1963) and Deutsch (1970) on U.S. foreign students reveal a variety of problems: difficulties in obtaining accustomed food; homesickness; getting used to American customs; adapting to the pace of life; experiencing racial or cultural discrimination; difficulties in meeting Americans; actions misunderstood by Americans. Similar sorts of personal adjustment problems have been found in the case of Indian students (Singh, 1963:94) and East African students (P.E.P., 1965:121) in Britain. Climate obviously can also be a source of stress if the student from a perpetually warm or hot country has to contend with low temperatures.

More group-specific problems are those encountered by married students who have to leave their wives and children behind. However, it is said that if dependents are brought along, their own adjustment problems may force the husband to concentrate on domestic matters rather than studies (Leeper et al. 1967:281). The phenomenon of "status loss" or "status diminution" has been observed among Indian students in Britain (Singh, 1963:98) and Asian students in Germany (Aich, 1962). Students from high-status home backgrounds found themselves "non-entities" among the mass of foreign students. Klein et al. (1968:80) have emphasized that the loss of status and self-esteem experienced by foreign students in their host country is

> especially acute when established professionals have to adopt what seem to them regressive student roles with personally threatening implications of ignorance and dependency.

One other group-specific problem was noticed by Anumonye (1970:92) among Nigerian graduate students in Scotland. "Clannishness" appeared

to be stress-producing, as it limited not only inter-tribal intimate friendships but also inter-tribal marriage tendencies.

Student Personnel Services. In his "sociological analysis of international education and exchange" at five Cleveland colleges and universities between 1963-65, Deutsch (1970:172) found opinion divided among the administrators regarding what services should be available to foreign students. Some saw such students as similar to American minority groups, so that while "the effort should be made to integrate them fully into campus life", no special services were necessary. Most of the administrators interviewed,however, saw the need for provision of

> academic and personal counselling by a specialized foreign student adviser; language assistance; special orientation; and social opportunities such as participation in community events and the experience of having a host family in the broader community.

There is much literature supporting this view. For example, NAFSA, the U.S. National Association for Foreign Student Affairs (Jenkins, 1973) has been specially instrumental in developing the role of the Foreign Student Adviser in personal advising, though it is also aware that

> many foreign students are unaccustomed to the advising situation ... There are cultures that deem it inappropriate and undignified to consult strangers about personal problems (NAFSA, 1966;147).

Thus it was found in Selltiz et al.'s (1963:147) study of attitudes and social relations of U.S. foreign students that the Asian students in the sample obtained help with non-academic problems "usually from fellow-students".

NAFSA (1966) has also stressed the importance of academic advising, and its relationship with personal advising.

> A foreign student's academic adviser may be the most important and influential person he encounters. The adviser is not only an academic focal point, but in many ways he may be the student's closest identification point. He may be the first person aware of either academic or personal problems of the student.

Consequently open lines of communication between the foreign student adviser and the academic adviser of foreign students are essential. More specific forms of student personnel services are orientation programs as previously discussed, and remedial English courses for those who need them.

Another major source of student personnel services derives from the widely-held belief that overseas study and educational exchange should, among other aims, help foster "international understanding". Hence, there should be opportunities for foreign students to relate meaningfully outside their academic work with members of the host culture, and vice versa. NAFSA (1967a), for instance, has listed two reasons for admitting foreign students as

> (a) to give American students a knowledge and feeling for other cultures and people different from themselves;
> (b) to give foreign students an understanding of the American culture and people in part through the experience of a campus-based education and contact with American students.

Foreign student advisers can promote such contact by stimulating the interest of student groups and individuals, and helping them become sensitive to the "subtleties involved in cross-cultural associations". The Selltiz (1963:119) study also found that interaction opportunities were affected by residential arrangements, and NAFSA (1967b) has recommended the planning and coordination of residences to enhance intercultural exchange.

The other major source of intercultural relationships for foreign students reside in activities organized by the outside host community (Bang, 1961). Examples are The Experiment in International Living, Vermont, which offers foreign students opportunities to reside with American families, and the VISIT program coordinated by the International Student Service, New York, in which foreign students can tour the United States through brief stays in various communities (IIE, 1969). Local host-family arrangements are also very common. Deutsch (1970:107) in his study, found "a profile of the international host" to have the following characteristics:

> hosts are above average in amount of education and in social-economic status, and are interested in international phenomenon. Most are satisfied with their participation in the particular hosting program of which they are a part. In general, they tend to emphasize the contributing role of the host in the cross-cultural relationship ... A large proportion of the hosts acquire additional information about the country from which their foreign guest comes, as a result of their relationship, and this knowledge tends to influence a positive change in attitudes towards the country.

This "atypical" profile of hosts with respect to socio-economic and educational characteristics appears to be a general rule. While the available evidence indicates that community relationships do contribute to the satisfaction of social needs of foreign students, it might be asked here if the involvement of less affluent members of the host community should not also be encouraged.

Staff Personnel; University-Aid Agency Relationships. There is very little in the literature dealing with the roles of staff personnel in aid study programs or even foreign student education in general. The major exception is the role of the Foreign Student

Adviser, who as discussed in the preceding section, is concerned primarily with non-academic problems of the students. What about instructional staff and administrative personnel? In Deutsch's (1970: 157) study, professors who taught the foreign students were mostly found to be

> not aware of how many foreign students are on their campus, what services are provided for foreign students, or who provides or who ought to provide such services,

even though they endorsed the foreign student presence on campus, and were aware of special problems affecting such students. However, no indication is given in the study as to what practical impact, if any, such "non-awareness" has on the faculty-foreign student relationship.

The bulk of literature on foreign student adjustment similarly pays little attention to the behavioral influence of professors. Such an orientation seems incongruous with what is known about the difficulties encountered by "culturally insensitive" foreign experts in technical assistance programs (Byrnes, 1964), or by volunteer workers such as the Peace Corps (Textor, 1966). The growing body of knowledge in intercultural education (Greenberg, 1968; Ianni and Storey, 1973) adds further weight to a need for professors of foreign students to have "cultural empathy".

Among the few to recognize this need are Lesser and Peter (1957:187) who argued that the trainers of foreign nationals should themselves undergo prior training on the characteristics of their own culture and of foreign cultural groups, on developing sensitivities to the problems of foreign students, and on stimulating an awareness of their own cultural biases. A related view lauds the increasing

involvement of American professors in overseas teaching assignments, one benefit being that they become more effective in teaching foreign students (Education and World Affairs, 1964:15-16).

Sinauer (1967:16-17) has warned, however, against the "mechanical" selection of instructional personnel on the basis of prior experience or direct knowledge of the foreign student's country. His personal experiences indicate that "subtle questions of acceptability" might be overlooked. For example, while working with two missionary educators with long experience in Africa, he found that African AID trainees often preferred to address their questions to him because they considered him "untainted by association with colonialism". Notwithstanding such caveats, it seems logical that instructors of foreign students who desire to provide a curriculum adapted and relevant to the needs of the home countries, should have a clear understanding of the way education proceeds in those countries.

Perspectives on the role of administrative personnel in educational exchange are equally scarce in the literature. Referring again to the Deutsch (1970:167-177) study, he found that "many pertinent philosophical questions and practical program considerations" had not been seriously discussed among the college and university administrators interviewed. Thus there was a lack of institutional policy and planning over such issues as foreign student admissions and institutional involvement in educational aid programs. Deutsch concluded that

> modifications will need to occur in administrative orientations in order for international educational goals and policies to be integrated into the existing framework of institutional objectives.

Neal (1964) has proposed an "International Office" within the

participant university or college as a strategy for such integration. This office would coordinate and manage all institutional educational exchange activities, including foreign student advising programs, the administration of on-campus or overseas aid programs, and liaison with the community. The International Officer would be a senior member of the university administration immediately supervised by the President or Chancellor. Neal expects the successful officer to encourage faculty participation in planning and implementing programs, notably academic aspects, while the Office secures funds, negotiates contracts, and liaison with sponsoring agencies. More recent literature sheds no further light on the idea of an International Office. In practice, of course, each aid project at a college or university usually has a "director" in charge of the project's administration. However, apart from the rare experiential account (e.g. Gue, 1972:52-54), little study appears to have been done on the complexities of a training director's role.

One other category of administrative personnel typically applying to aid study projects or programs are the administrative staff of the aid agency involved. Again, no direct study of their roles appears in the literature. Some useful insights are obtained though from the dialogue which has emerged in recent years over the relationship between U.S. universities and the government's Agency for International Development (Gardner, 1964; Caldwell, 1967; Humphrey, 1967; Richardson, 1969). Apart from such administrative problems as

(a) "mutual lack of commitment" which arise from a university's acceptance of contracts with little input into project planning, or from poor selection of the participating university by the Agency;

(b) delays in decisions about university contract matters owing to complex decision-making procedures and staffing problems within the Agency;

(c) disagreements over regulations governing the administering of contract funds,

there are also problems arising from "conceptual differences" about the nature of aid programs and the conditions necessary to accomplish them.

One difference is the tendency of AID officials to view educational assistance as only one part of the total U.S. aid contribution, whereas university professors tend to operate within their own disciplinary focus. Then, the political premises underlying aid-giving, typically accepted by government officials, may be de-emphasized by academicians. Agency officials also tend to stress short-term easily measurable projects, while academics, as educators, often see the task as a long-range developmental process. Such conceptual differences usually result in non-agreement over goals of a project or program, even if lower-level operational objectives have been agreed on. Richardson (1969:171) illustrates this point with respect to the problem of project length as follows:

> University officials, who identify closely with academic goals related to the particular project and may also be motivated by the goal of having some project for their institution, will always be able to devise perfectly valid reasons why more should be done. Agency officials, on the other hand, are able to devise equally good reasons, in terms of their perspectives, why more should not be done.

The literature on university-aid agency relationships suggests therefore that greater complementarity of goals between university personnel and aid agency officials, as well as the thorny issues of university-autonomy versus agency control, are problems whose solution

are essential for the increased effectiveness of aid-program administration.

Curriculum. In 1955, a Fulbright lecturer to Pakistan commented on the "defeatist" attitude of returned Pakistan trainees who felt unable to apply what they had learned in the U.S., and also lacked insight and desire to change their work-situation (Dresden, 1955). Over ten years later, a Director of Education and World Affairs (Michie, 1968:27) said:

> It is highly questionable whether the academic programs prescribed for foreign students while in the United States do, in fact, prepare them for their roles back in their home culture.

Such opinions highlight a major administrative issue in the curriculum for foreign students, namely "relevance". The logic of giving scholarships for training that is related and usable to national development of the recipient country cannot be disputed. Nonetheless, continuing discussion exists on the appropriate strategy to achieve relevance, and in practice programs for foreign students range along a continuum between specially designed courses and enrolment in the ordinary university courses.

Three disadvantages of special courses are listed by Williams (1964) as shortage of qualified teachers, very high overhead costs, and removal of the foreign students from contact with American students, thereby "depreciating one of the basic values of the exchange program". He suggests effective academic counselling instead to encourage relevance, and also endorses the "area studies" approach whereby an institution develops competence and accumulates resources in certain

geographic areas. The faculty would then be familiar with the needs, culture and society of incoming foreign students from those areas.

British experience, on the other hand, has favoured specially designed courses in a number of training situations, such as the Commonwealth bursary scheme for education studies, and courses for experienced professional personnel. Principal advantages are cited as the greater variety of experience among the lecturers than is normal in academic subjects, the wide range of foreign countries represented which encourages a wide discussion from different points of view, and the focus of syllabi on the problems of developing countries (P.E.P., 1965:111-112).

Harari (1971:37) has asked "whether curriculum changes suited to the need of foreign students would disturb the desirable balance of American education". While special sets of courses are probably undesirable in his view, Harari insists that a "field-by-field universalization of curriculum" is necessary. Such universalization in United States institutions is not uniform, as the two-year study of the Committee on the Professional School and World Affairs (1966: 86,324) has shown. In the case of schools of public administration, for example

> there are indications that the enrolment of foreign students has not affected the curricula or teaching methods of a number of schools; in several institutions with substantial numbers of such students the course work continues to center almost exclusively upon U.S. concepts and practices ... (and) there seems to be little evidence of special assistance to help foreign students relate American doctrines and techniques to the quite different backgrounds of their own countries.

Other schools, however, do emphasize a comparative, cross-cultural approach and try to assist foreign students to "comprehend the history

and ecology of U.S. public administration and the problems of adapting and introducing new concepts and technologies into systems of change". With respect to schools of education, the observation is made that

> too few schools ... have worked out a clear-cut rationale as to why they accept foreign students at all. Nor have they figured out what types of programs in their school are best suited to the preparation of foreign students and guide their policies accordingly.

From the literature, curriculum relevance is evidently an area requiring serious attention in aid study programs, and foreign student education in general.

Case-studies of curricula for specific aid programs are unfortunately rarely published or widely circulated after completion of the programs. Three exceptions are the reports of The University of Alberta-Thailand Comprehensive School Project (Gue, 1969:1972), the collection of five case-studies of training of Latin American nationals under the U.S. Technical Cooperation Training Program (Maddox and Tolley, 1957), and the report of a business leadership course for Asian students in the Graduate School of Business Administration, University of Michigan (Scott, 1966). It could be argued here that the more programs or courses are objectively recounted and publicized with their development, successes and failures clarified, the more assistance future programs will get in avoiding some of the problems and pitfalls of administering an appropriate curriculum.

Goals and Purposes. Many analysts of foreign student affairs have pointed out that the actors involved in educational exchange do not always share the same emphasis concerning goals and purposes of the overseas study or training. In general, the foreign student appears

to stress personal, self-oriented goals such as success in academic undertakings and professional development, whereas administrators and sponsors tend to emphasize the broader goals of national development and international understanding (Coehlo, 1962; Deutsch, 1970:70).

In a qualitative discussion, Davis (1964:52) notes that some students do not wish to return, viewing overseas study as a means of "escaping" from a situation where "they can find no satisfactory future for themselves". Faculty members who teach the foreign students tend, in Davis' view, to emphasize academic performance and are

> irritated when the language skills, academic preparation, and general effectiveness of a foreign student are deficient. They would like to admit only the best, and to have some means of improving deficiencies quickly. They would also like to have someone other than themselves spend time in the solution of the foreign student's personal, social, financial, language, and administrative problems. But when they find a first-rate student, they encourage him to perform at the maximum of his ability and to continue on to the highest degree of which they think him capable.

University administrators, while accepting such faculty purposes, also emphasize non-academic aspects of training and are aware of the broader social and national purposes stressed by sponsoring agencies and governments.

Given such differing emphasis in goals and purposes among students and other relevant intermediaries, it would not be unexpected if conflict sometimes occur. In the case of foreign students, such conflict is notably manifested in the "brain-drain" problem (Kindleberger, 1968). Non-returnees frequently stay on due to personal purposes of finding easy and satisfactory employment in their host countries, or of living in a more "desirable" political system. Lundstet (1963:7) argues that "under conditions of increased motivation

and reward the cultural values of the United States may be learned so well and so deeply that resocialization may occur," thus discouraging the student from returning.

In the case of sponsored students, it might be contended that since they are normally under contractual agreements to return and are usually guaranteed immediate employment on return, the problem does not arise. No figures, however, appear to be available on the number of sponsored students who after a period of service in their home countries, have returned to the host or other developed nations, and in effect, creating a sort of "delayed" brain-drain. Research on this issue seems important.

Another more direct form of goal-conflict in aid-study programs arises,as Davis (1964:53) has noted, where the sponsored student is

> such a good student that both he and his professor seek to secure permission for him to stay longer than planned and achieve a higher academic degree than the one for which he was sent.

Such extension of scholarship study, if granted, represents more or less a displacement of the original purpose of the program, and may well be inimical to development of the recipient country if the aid program had been designed to meet specific manpower needs. At a colloquium on the foreign graduate student, at Racine, Wisconsin in 1967, a Director of AID stated that

> the occasional effort made by colleges and universities to obtain extensions for AID participants to remain and pursue additional studies, often for added degrees, is usually inconsistent with the programs' objectives. Too often in the past this kind of extension has resulted in longer stays, training in excess of need, and subsequent disappointment for the student when he returns home and finds that he is overqualified for the job for which training was requested. In other instances it has doubtless contributed to the participant's desire and efforts to remain permanently in the United States and seek employment here (Lavergne, 1969:45).

On the other hand, it can be reasonably argued that the brilliant student belongs to a minority, and his further training to higher levels would benefit his country in the long run. Moreover the student who returns home disillusioned because he is unable to extend his scholarship may not be a very motivated worker on his return. A compromise strategy in such cases might be to allow extension only to above average students in fields relevant to their country's needs. Also, the student should be required to sign a contract of service at home after graduation for at least, say five to ten years.

Evaluation. Questions relating to the effectiveness and efficiency of aid-study programs can only be answered through evaluation, and to greater or lesser degrees of emphasis via varying methods, this has been happening. In their report of five U.S. technical cooperation training programs for Latin American nationals, Maddox and Tolley (1957:55) posed three types of questions relevant to the evaluation of the programs.

> • Effectiveness of study in the United States - Have the programs succeeded in teaching the trainees new knowledge, skills, or attitudes, thus strengthening and broadening their abilities along the lines of the programs' objectives?
> • Effectiveness of trainees in their home countries - After returning home, are the trainees able to influence programs, people, and events in accordance with the aims of the training which they received in the United States?
> • Objectives and administrative procedures - Have the training programs been aimed at proper and reasonable goals? Have they been carried out in a wise and efficent manner?

These questions form a useful framework for reviewing the literature on how evaluations of aid-study programs have been carried out.

In the Maddox and Tolley study, evaluation of the effectiveness of U.S. study usually took two forms. First immediately at the end of

each training program, there was a session where participants gave statements , and were interviewed by government officials, on their study and personal experiences and problems, opinions or criticisms of courses taken, and recommendations for future programs. Secondly, the researchers undertook field study, including interviews with returned trainees, U.S. technical cooperation missions in their home countries, and administrators-educators of the training programs. However, the methodology of evaluation was not rigorous, as

> interviews and discussions were not carried out by the use of formal questionnaires, control groups of nationals who had not studied in the United States, scientifically designed samples, and similar techniques.

Evaluation of the effectiveness of trainees in their home countries was focused essentially on the trainees' work status and activities after return, based on data supplied by Agency headquarters, field missions, and some of the trainees themselves. Again, no formalized evaluation procedure appeared to have been used. Finally Maddox and Tolley discussed the relevancy of objectives and the efficiency of their achievement by considering such factors as the quality of selection of participants, the training methods used, and the capabilities of the training personnel. This particular evaluation study thus attempted to answer all three types of questions posed, but did so with neither uniform, rigorous methodology nor comprehensive analysis of each program.

More systematic and methodologically sound is Pfeffer's (1961) study of the training of Pakistanis in Germany, though the evaluation is based primarily on the opinions of the hundred students or trainees

interviewed. Topics analyzed included the application, selection and preparation of students before leaving for Germany, the place, content, problems and achievements of training, the cultural problems and consequences of staying in Germany, and the students' work activities after returning home. The study, while it is seen to deal with aspects of all three types of questions posed above, lacked inputs from staff and administrative personnel in Germany.

To a large extent, evaluation by opinion surveys of students or trainees treated as independent units (without regard for the specific programs they are or were on) is the procedure employed for AID-sponsored participants. Garfield (1964), for example, sent questionnaires to 262 former sponsored trainees (from 92 different countries) who had participated in the U.S. Teacher Exchange Program in 1968. Deutsch and Won (1966) had 94 AID trainees fill out questionnaires during pre-return communications training seminars operated by Michigan State University for AID. These questionnaires were designed primarily to ask trainees to evaluate their U.S. social experiences and training programs. In the Garfield Study, information on post-return experiences was also sought.

A number of evaluation studies of AID participants from specific geographic areas or countries have also been conducted. The Research Tabulating Corporation (1963), for instance, administered an opinion survey to 100 returned AID Sudanese participants with respect to their characteristics at time of selection, their activities between selection and departure for training, the extent to which they were utilizing their training effectively on return, and the extent to which they were communicating information to fellow Sudanese. Forty Sudanese supervisors

and ten U.S. technicians working with the returned participants were also interviewed regarding their opinions of the effectiveness of the training received. In 1965, a fairly similar sort of survey was conducted on the U.S. AID Peruvian Participant Training Program (International Research Associates, 1965).

It was seen earlier that studies of foreign students at educational institutions (e.g. Selltiz, 1963; Deutsch, 1970; P.E.P., 1965) yielded directly or indirectly evidence relevant to sponsored students. A review of Dissertation Abstracts shows in fact that numerous dissertations have been written which may be considered evaluation of selected aspects of the status of foreign student program in specific colleges or universities. Typically, such studies focus with varying scope on the quality of student personnel services, and the social-educational experiences, and adjustment of the foreign student.

Chou (1960) and Berte (1966), for example, analyzed the general foreign student programs at the Universities of Georgia and Cincinnati respectively. Shephard (1970) studied the acculturation of foreign students in Southern U.S. colleges and universities, and Zain (1965) the adjustment of foreign students studying extension education at Cornell, Kansas State, Michigan State, Missouri and Wisconsin. One thesis (Jones, 1971) focused on returned foreign student alumni of the University of Northern Colorado and the University of Denver between 1958 and 1970. The effect of U.S. education was described in terms of the foreign students' educational experiences on campus, their personal lives, their contributions to home countries on return, and their continued use of English. Another dissertation by Eliot (1967) appears

to be unique in its examination of the foreign student program from an explicit administrative perspective, thereby achieving more comprehensiveness in analysis. Essentially, admissions policies and practices at selected public California Junior Colleges were examined in such areas as philosophical bases for institutional organization and faculty, admissions policies, curricula and instruction, and student personnel services.

The evaluation studies so far described have neither dealt with one specific aid project nor with the foreign student program offered by a particular academic department or professional school. There is, in fact, almost nothing in the literature of these two types of evaluation, suggesting either that they are not being done, or that they have not been published or widely circulated. One example of the second type is Scott's (1966:3) evaluation of the foreign graduate program at the University of Michigan Graduate School of Business Administration. Forty-six Asian alumni of the school who had returned home were interviewed, and their opinions sought on a number of questions, including

> (1) What progress have Asian alumni of the University of Michigan made on their careers since returning to their own countries? Did the combination of courses which they studied enable them to meet the needs of employers in their own countries and to make satisfactory progress in assuming increasing responsibility and leadership? (2) Has the education they received in business administration been useful in furthering their careers? What subjects have been most useful? Least useful? (3) What is the best type of education to prepare students for future business leadership in these Asian countries? Should those seeking business careers limit their preparation to an undergraduate degree or combine undergraduate work with graduate school training? What kind of undergraduate education should precede graduate business school training? What are the

proper objectives for graduate business schools in the training of Asian students? Should core requirements be modified to meet their special needs? What courses are recommended for future Asian business leaders? How much specialization should be permitted?

An example of evaluation of a specific aid project is that of The University of Alberta-Thailand Comprehensive School Project, held between 1966-1972 (Gue, 1969:1972). Evaluation so far has been two-fold. Just prior to return home, each group of participants was asked to estimate the usefulness of the training program to their duties in Thailand. At least one year later, the participants re-evaluated the program usefulness using the same questionnaires as the basis of their post-return experiences. Secondly, the impact of the training program on the Thai Comprehensive Project Schools and their communities was also assessed by soliciting the opinion of the school principals. A suggestion has been made by the Project's Training Director that the Project be comprehensively evaluated in 1976, ten years after its commencement.

From this review of evaluation procedures employed to date to assess foreign student, or aid study programs, it is clear that considerable room for improvement exists in the state of the art. Generally, apart from the few exceptions noted, two major deficiencies are apparent. First, there is the omission of two main intermediaries involved in any training or study program, namely instructional staff and administrators. Consequently neither administrative nor curricula processes receive serious evaluation. Secondly, the study design tends to be general, based on opinion surveys of students with little regard for the specific programs or projects they were in. Thus little information is forthcoming on specific program weaknesses,

strengths and processes which would give clues to improvements in administration of a particular type of program.

The Canadian Experience. The preceding literature review is significant in the lack of material on the Canadian experience in aid study programs. Partly this reflects the relative lateness of Canada's entry into educational aid activities in a major fashion[1]. However it is also due to a general inadequacy in the relevant knowledge and research base. As Walmsley (1970:173) observed.

> no university in Canada has really made a serious effort to keep fully informed on all aspects of the educational requirements of developing countries and especially of what Canada is doing in the educational assistance field.

A recent bibliography of Canadian theses on comparative and international education supports this observation (Narang, 1972). Only one out of ninety-four Masters and Doctoral theses between 1932-1972 in those areas dealt specifically with educational aid.

There was, of course, some increased interest within the university community on the problems faced by foreign students as their numbers in Canada increased after 1960. A number of conferences were held, and committees formed. The initiative was provided principally by the National Conference of Canadian Universities and Colleges (NUCC) and its executive branch, the Canadian Universities Foundation (CUF)[2]. However it was not until 1967 that a serious

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[1] In 1955, the total number of CIDA sponsored students and trainees was only 371. The figure increased to 607 by 1960, and was 1188 in 1964 (CIDA, 1973b)

[2] These two bodies were combined in 1965 into the Association of Universities and Colleges of Canada (AUCC).

comprehensive study was made on Canadian educational exchange (Walmsley, 1970). This study, commissioned by CIDA through a contract with AUCC, was aimed at assessing the resources available at Canadian universities to support CIDA university education or training programmes. Components of the study included a statistical profile of the Canadian foreign student popultion in 1968, a survey of the policies, procedures, and services for foreign students on the campuses, and a review of university involvement in educational aid programs and international education.

The results of the study indicate that the Canadian experience is essentially parallel to that of the United States and other developed nations. Thus universities in Canada have experienced problems of selection owing to difficulties in interpreting credentials. In 1968, twenty-nine universities made provision for a separate orientation for overseas students, though these usually lasted no more than one day. The major adjustment problems of foreign students were listed by their foreign student advisers as insufficient academic qualification, insufficient knowledge of the language of instruction, poor cultural adaptation, and insufficient financial resources. Questions about the relevancy of courses of study have been raised, while as stated earlier, little evidence of specific program evaluation or any serious study of achievement exists. No complete follow-up of aid projects have yet been made. Finally the study showed that conceptual differences about educational aid exist between the universities and CIDA similar to those affecting U.S. universities - AID relationships. In sum, the Canadian experience appears to

embody the same essential issues that affect the administration of educational aid programs in any of the Western developed nations.

The Overseas-Local Debate. A policy issue in educational aid that has evoked considerable discussion is the question of whether training or study should occur in the developed nations or in the recipient countries themselves. As the preceding discussion has shown, study overseas entails problems such as the irrelevance of curricula and training to the needs of the recipient nation, and the cultural-psychological alienation that the student may experience due to prolonged absence from home in a radically different milieu. When the student returns such alienation may cause maladjustment difficulties sometimes severe enough that he soon emigrates to his former country of training or some other developed nation. For other students, the desire for higher standards of living and greater employment opportunities may provide sufficient incentive to leave.

In some African nations, excessive facilities for overseas scholarship study have also led to the drawing away of the best students from their home countries. Consequently, local educational institutions experience difficulty in raising their standards and quality (Cerych, 1965:129). Study abroad on a large scale can also hinder implementation of some sort of national manpower policy, as in the case of Uganda (Williams, 1966:126). On the other hand, Domergue (1968:134) argues that economic and social development depends not only on the availability of skills but also the presence of appropriate mental and psychological attitudes. Thus

> training abroad, as compared with training at home in developing countries, has the advantage of combining the acquisition of knowledge and know-how with an exposure to such attitudes as they exist in developed societies.

Overall, the weight of current opinion in this overseas-local debate seems to favour "institution-building", that is, the development of local facilities and resources for study and training. However, since institution-building is necessarily a slow process requiring legislation, financing, construction, and training of staff, this criterion would have to be waived if the developing nation urgently requires trained personnel. Still, according to Domergue (1968:132), such "stop-gap" training should be only provisional, and eventually replaced by institution-building.

One alternative to overseas study in a developed nation which has seen some use is that of study or training in another developing country, preferably in the same geographic region. Such "third-country" training is said not only to provide less cultural shock problems for the student, since the socio-cultural milieu is less radically different, but also easier adaptability of study programs to the needs of the student's home country. Moreover training or educational institutions in the "third country" are strengthened in the process (CIDA, 1969:22). As yet, these assumptions have not been seriously investigated by researchers, and more study on issues and problems of third country training seems important.

SUMMARY

This chapter has presented a review of literature considered pertinent to the theoretical base of this investigation. First, Uganda

was described in terms of its general socio-cultural background, and its state of educational development around the sixties when the Project was initiated. It was seen that the major priorities for educational development focused on the quantitative expansion of secondary education, and the qualitative improvement of primary education. The remainder of the literature review summarized prevailing knowledge on the administration of educational aid-study programs.

To begin with, experts are seen to generally agree on criteria determining effective aid, such as initiating only projects with "multiplying effect", integrated in the whole educational and socio-economic development of the recipient country, and which cannot be started at all without external aid. With respect to the operation of aid-study programs, numerous issues have been documented as having significant impact on the effectiveness and efficiency of the programs. These included the selection of participant students or trainees, their orientation to the new environment encountered on arrival, academic and non-academic problems experienced, student personnel services, including social relations with their hosts, staff personnel and relationships between the university and aid-agency, curriculum relevance, goal conflicts, and provisions for program evaluation.

The literature review concluded with a look at the Canadian experience in aid-study programs, and the debate over whether training should occur overseas, or in recipient countries themselves. The same essential issues affecting the administration of educational aid programs in any of the Western developed nations are seen to apply to

the Canadian experience, while prevailing expert opinion leans on the side of "institution-building" in the recipient nation.

Chapter 4

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

As Selltiz et al.(1959:50) have defined, "a research design is the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure". These researchers identified three major classes of research design: formulative or exploratory studies; descriptive studies; studies testing causal hypotheses. The "descriptive" label fits the nature of this investigation. It should be noted, however, that "description" of the Uganda Project entails both "analysis" and "interpretation".

> It is the purpose of analysis to summarize the completed observations in such a manner that they yield answers to the research questions. It is the purpose of interpretation to search for the broader meaning of these answers by linking them to other available knowledge (Selltiz et al., 1959:386).

Moreover, since the investigation focuses on one specific "social unit as a whole", that is, the Project, it may also be termed a "case-study" (Good, 1972:328).

The research methodology involves two data-gathering techniques, namely interviews and documentary study. The choice of using the interview technique rather than a questionnaire was dictated by reason of the small size of the sample, and the greater flexibility it allows for clarifying responses as well as eliciting perceptual feelings and

beliefs.

The individuals who agreed to participate in the study were resident for the most part either in Ottawa, or in Edmonton, Alberta. One respondent, however, had to be contacted in Washington and another in Claremont, California. The documents studied were obtained from files located in CIDA and The University of Alberta.

SAMPLING

The theoretical population that could have been interviewed consists of all the human resources involved in the Project. Eight major groups of individuals who had participated in the Project, formally or informally, are distinguishable in this population:

(a) the trainees, of whom there were fifteen in the first group, and thirty in the second group;

(b) administrative personnel in the Ministry of Education, Uganda;

(c) administrative personnel in the Office of the Canadian High Commissioner in Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania;

(d) administrative personnel in the EAO, Ottawa;

(e) administrative personnel in The University of Alberta;

(f) instructional personnel in The University of Alberta;

(g) members of the community in Edmonton, or elsewhere in Canada who interacted with the trainees on a social basis.

The interviewing of members from the first three groups would have necessitated a visit to Uganda, as was planned in the senior researcher's original design for the study. However certain political developments in Uganda in 1972-1973 prevented such a visit, and the

scope of the final sample was considerably curtailed. Thus, all Ugandan individuals involved in the Project, including Ministry of Education officials, and the trainees (with two exceptions) could not be included. As stated earlier, the exceptions are two second-group trainees who have since returned to Canada as landed immigrants.

The third group of participant personnel, that is those who had served in Canada's overseas mission at Dar-es-Salaam at the time of the Project, was not represented in the final sample since none was readily available in Canada for comment. With respect to EAO administrative personnel, individuals approached for interviewing were those to whom Dr. Gue was directed by senior staff of CIDA. Some of these individuals, however, declined to be interviewed, primarily on the basis of the time lapse between the Project and this study.

Sampling in The University of Alberta and Edmonton community sectors was likewise purposive (Chien, 1959:520). All university administrative personnel significantly involved in the Project were included. As the study focuses on the administration of the Project, rather than directly on the curriculum per se, no attempt was made to sample instructional personnel in a representative fashion. Two such personnel teaching in different subject-areas were selected, however, to provide some illustrations of the problems associated with instruction in the Project. Finally, one administrative official of the major community organization in contact with the trainees was included in the sample.

THE RESEARCH SAMPLE

In all, eighteen individuals agreed to be interviewed. The roles they held, or their status vis-a-vis the Project, as well as their present work positions are sketched as follows:

(1) H. T. Coutts, Dean Faculty of Education, The University of Alberta at the time of the Project, and presently Dean Emeritus, The University of Alberta;

(2) W. H. Worth, Deputy Minister of Advanced Education, Province of Alberta, Canada, who was Chairman, Department of Elementary Education, The University of Alberta, when the Project was in progress;

(3) J. E. Robertson, Professor of Elementary Education, The University of Alberta, who while pursuing doctoral studies in the Department of Elementary Education, assumed main administrative responsibility for overall organization of The University of Alberta sector of the Project, and also functioned as one of the instructors in the Project;

(4) M. Gulutsan, Associate Professor of Educational Psychology, The University of Alberta, who served as a member of the five-man Phi Delta Kappa (University of Alberta Chapter) "Target Four" committee which investigated 'culture shock' among the trainees;

(5) J. O. Regan, Associate Professor in Education, Claremont Graduate School, California, who was Director of the Phi Delta Kappa Committee mentioned above, and formerly Assistant Professor of Secondary Education, The University of Alberta, at the time of the Project;

(6) J. G. Sparling (Mrs.), who was Dean of Women, The University of Alberta, at the time of the Project;

(7) M. M. Gue (Mrs.), nee M. Munz, who was elected to the position of President, Pembina Hall House Committee in February, 1965;

(8) E. Corlett (Ms.), a member of the Zonta Club, Edmonton, who as Chairman of the Club's International Relations Committee, was responsible for initiating that Club's involvement with the trainees;

(9) H. O. Moran, recently retired as Canada's Ambassador to Japan, who formerly served as Director-General, Education Division, of the External Aid Office;

(10) R. E. Byron, Director of Technical Assistance, External Aid Office, at the time of the Project, and currently attached to the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development (World Bank);

(11) A. McGill, presently Director-General, African and Middle East Affairs, Department of External Affairs, who served in the External Aid Office when the Project was in operation;

(12) C. Demers, formerly Acting Director, Training Division of the External Aid Office, and now with the Secretariat of the Privy Council of Canada;

(13) W. B. Wannop, External Aid Office Training Programme Officer in charge of the trainees in 1964, later Head of the Human Resources Section of the office in 1965, and presently Country Program Manager of the Bilateral Programs Branch, Asia 2 Division Pakistan/Afganistan, of the Canadian International Development Agency;

(14) H. Christie, a member of the Parole Board of Canada, who served in the External Aid Offices as Director, Training Division, in 1964;

(15) T. P. Atkinson, Associate Professor of Elementary Education, The University of Alberta, who as Assistant Professor of Elementary Education, taught Mathematics Teaching Methods in the Project;

(16) N. M. Purvis, Professor of Elementary Education, The University of Alberta, who instructed the trainees in Science Teaching Methods when he was on staff as Associate Professor of Elementary Education;

(17) Trainee A, a participant trainee in 1965-1966 who, two months after returning to Uganda, came back to Canada for further education, and is presently an elementary school teacher in Edmonton;

(18) Trainee B, also a second-group trainee who returned to Uganda to teach for over six years before immigrating to Canada in 1972, and is presently working with the Government of Alberta.

THE INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Interviews were conducted with sample respondents using an interview schedule.[1] The schedule (Appendix B) consisted of a total of fifty-eight open-ended questions organized under seven categories. Six of these categories are the administrative task-areas referred to in Chapter 2, while one ("Organization") very broadly represents a component of the administrative process. Under each category, a number of questions were asked with respect to pertinent and significant aspects of the task-area of the administrative process, as follows:

(I) Student Personnel: selection, reception, housing, counselling, achievement, records, special problems (10 questions);

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[1] Constructed by L. R. Gue.

(II) Staff Personnel: administrative,teaching and support staff used in the Project by the External Aid Office, The University of Alberta, and Uganda (8 questions);

(III) Curriculum: goals, planning and implementation of the program of studies at The University of Alberta (13 questions);

(IV) Finance: costs of the Project, categorized by travel, maintenance, instruction, and miscellaneous expenditure (15 questions);

(V) Organization: perceptions of manner in which the human and material resources were brought together in the implementation of the Project (2 questions);

(VI) Physical Plant: buildings, equipment and learning resources used in the Project (4 questions);

(VII) University-Community Relations: manner in which individuals and organizations in Edmonton responded to the social needs of the trainees (6 questions);

The interview design is therefore structured, adding to the comparability of answers from different respondents. In addition, the use of open-ended questions in the schedule renders the advantage of allowing respondents to qualify answers according to personal frames of reference (Selltiz et al., 1959:262).

It is also evident that the schedule is not explicitly structured on the administrative process as conceptualized in the second chapter. The questions, except for two, are instead clustered into the six administrative task-areas to allow description of the Project within a useful taxonomic framework. Nonetheless, because the administrative

process is inherently involved in each of the task-areas, it would be possible via careful analysis, to extract from the responses a view of the administrative process in terms of planning organizing, decision-making and so on. Some direct input to this view also comes from the responses to the two broad questions classified under "Organization".

COLLECTION OF INTERVIEW DATA

In the conduct of each interview, standard procedures were maximally followed to ensure validity and reliability of responses (Cannel and Kahn, 1953). Though a permissive, friendly atmosphere was maintained throughout to encourage frank opinions, evaluative gestures or comments on the part of the interviewer were carefully avoided. Where replies were not too clear or complete, non-directive probes were employed.

If a respondent's permission was granted, the interview was tape-recorded to prevent any loss in the amount of interview content, and the recording later transcribed. Otherwise, respondents' answers were recorded by the interviewer as essential notes which were then written up as fully as possible immediately after the interview.

Other pertinent characteristics of the eighteen interviews are as follows:

(1) the first interview was conducted on July 22, 1972, and the last one on May 13, 1974;

(2) the length of the interviews ranged from one half-hour to two hours;

(3) seven of the interviews were untaped, two of these being

conducted over the telephone (Table 1);

(4) for four of the six EAO respondents, namely Byron, McGill, Christie and Demers, no attempt was made to ask them every question in the interview schedule. This was partly owing to time constraints and partly due to the limited nature of the direct involvement of these respondents in the Project. Instead, one comprehensive question was asked under each of the seven categories. For example, under the category of Student Personnel, the question was asked: "Have you any comments to make about the student personnel under the topics of selection, reception, housing, counselling, achievement, records, and special problems?";

(5) one other EAO respondent, Moran, preferred not to follow the interview schedule, and instead in a non-directive type of interview, made general comments about the External Aid Office, and the Ugandan Project as he recalled it;

(6) all other sample respondents were asked the full complement of questions except when it was established during the interview itself that the respondent, by virtue of his/her role, would not be able to answer questions relating to a particular category.

DATA FROM DOCUMENTARY SOURCES

Apart from interviewing, data were also procured from the study of documents such as records, memoranda, letters, reports and telegraphic messages authored by various sources. In all, some one hundred and ninety-four different documents were found relevant and

Table 1

Sample Respondents: Dates and Nature of Interviews

Name	Date	Nature
T. P. Atkinson	Feb 7, 1974	Taped
R. E. Byron	Jun 6, 1973	Untaped Telephone
H. Christie	Jun 5, 1973	Untaped
E. Corlett	Aug 12, 1972	Taped
H. T. Coutts	Jul 31, 1972	Taped
C. Demers	Jun 7, 1973	Untaped
M. M. Gue	Aug 10, 1972	Taped
M. Gulutsan	Aug 7, 1972	Taped
A. McGill	Jun 15, 1973	Untaped Telephone
H. O. Moran	Jun 11, 1973	Untaped
N. M. Purvis	Feb 25, 1974	Taped
J. O. Regan	Sep 25, 1972	Untaped Telephone
J. E. Robertson	Mar 22, 1973 May 24, 1973	Taped Taped
J. G. Sparling	May 25, 1973	Taped
Trainee A	May 8, 1974	Taped
Trainee B	May 13, 1974	Taped
W. B. Wannop	Jun 4, 1973	Untaped
W. H. Worth	Oct 24, 1973	Taped

used, as follows:

No. of documents examined	Author of document
127	University of Alberta personnel
34	External Aid Office Personnel
17	Officials in the Ministry of Education, Uganda; Ugandan diplomatic representatives; Ugandan trainees
9	Officials in the Office of the High Commissioner for Canada, Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania
7	Other persons; members of Edmonton community

The documents were obtained from four sources. At the University of Alberta, permission was obtained from the University Archivist to peruse all available archive documents related to the Uganda Project (Files Accession Nos: 70-10-31 and 70-10-32). Some documents were also made available by the Office of the Comptroller, The University of Alberta, and by Dr. J. E. Robertson from her personal file on the Project. Fourthly, the Canadian International Development Agency gave access to the researchers documents of the former External Aid Office bearing on the Uganda Project. These documents were obtained from the following EAO files: 11-5W, 36-9F-1, 36-9F-20, 9F-A61, 9F-A113, 9F-D36, 9F-J20, 9F-K109, 9F-M91, 9F-M93, 9F-N67, and 9F-S68.

DATA PROCESSING

Data from both the interviews and documents were processed by abstracting answers from the data to each of the questions on the interview schedule. During abstracting, care was taken to maintain the

original meaning of each interview response or documentary statement. A three-tier numeral coding system was devised to code each of the abstracts. After collating manually all the coded abstracts relevant to each schedule question to represent information coming from a variety of sources (i.e. from one or more interview respondents, and/or one or more documents) about that question, the abstracts were typed onto computer cards and then listed on computer print-outs by calling a simple listing program.

This manner of collation allowed convenient comparison of opinions and beliefs of the different respondents on any one question, thereby facilitating final reportings of the findings. The total accumulation of 703 abstracts (of which 55% came from interview responses, and 45% from documents) was subsequently used as the data base for describing the Project according to the administrative task-areas taxonomy, and for interpreting the administrative process of the Project. Though the abstracting, coding and collation procedures are elaborated in Appendix C with the aid of sample abstracts, three additional comments should be made here.

In the case of the documents, abstracting basically involved scrutinizing the text of each document with the questions on the schedule kept in clear mental focus. Often, the documents yielded answers to more than one question pertaining to different task-areas. Even in the case of the interview data, it was found that the open-ended nature of the questions frequently resulted in the answer to a specific question being also relevant to another question(s) of the same or different category.

During the process of abstracting, it was also found necessary to add one further category termed "Miscellaneous". Under this category was collated data not directly answering the questions on the schedule but nevertheless were of more or less direct or indirect value to the understanding of the Project's administrative process.

In addition, a fourteenth question in the category of "Curriculum" had to be "created" during abstracting, viz. "What is the content of the curriculum?" This question was designed to take into account the substantial amount of data furnished on this topic, particularly by the documents. Such information, however, will not be included in the main body of this report but rather in Appendix D.

VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

In social science research, the validity of a measuring instrument is defined as the extent to which it measures in actuality what it purports to measure (Van Dalen, 1973:337). The validity of the instrument used in this study may be considered to "logical" or "content" validity, since the questions were formulated as representative items of the task-areas commonly accepted to apply in educational administration.

The overall validity of the study, which is based on a specific conceptual framework, is however a function of the degree to which information relevant to the conceptual components of the administrative process are directly or indirectly derivable from the data furnished by the interviews and documents.

The validity of the study is also increased by the reliability

of the data measured, that is, on the extent to which the measurements remain constant as they are repeated under conditions taken to be constant (Kaplan, 1964:200). As discussed under Collection of Interview Data, standard procedures were maximally followed during each interview to ensure reliability of responses. In addition, verbal statements were checked for correctness by referring to documentary evidence whenever possible.

SUMMARY

This chapter has detailed the research design and methodology of the study. The purposive sampling employed resulted in a sample consisting of practically all the major in-Canada administrators of the Project (five at The University of Alberta, and six at the former External Aid Office), two participant trainees, three instructors, and three members of the Edmonton community who were concerned with the social needs of the trainees. This sample was interviewed using a schedule constructed by L. R. Gue. In all, fifty-eight open-ended questions organized under seven categories were asked. Six of the categories were the administrative task-areas referred to in Chapter 2; the seventh represented very broadly a component of the administrative process, viz. "organizing". The interviews were carried out over a period from July, 1972 to May 13, 1974.

Other evidence came from documents, such as records, memoranda, letters, reports, minutes, and telegrams, gathered from files at the Canadian International Development Agency and the University of Alberta. Dr. J. E. Robertson also made available a personal file of documents on the Project. Data processing of both interview and documentary

evidence occurred by abstracting answers from such evidence to each question of the schedule. In sum, this piece of research was descriptive in nature, may be considered a case-study of the Uganda Project, and used interviewing and documentary study as the two data-gathering techniques.

Chapter 5

THE UGANDA-CANADA PRIMARY TEACHER TRAINING PROJECT

INTRODUCTION

The ensuing description of the Uganda Project embodies both facts and opinions. In general, individuals are named only in factual circumstances. Opinions are usually attributed to unidentified members of a specific participant group or organization, the major exception being some opinions of those administrative personnel who had been very closely identified with the Project. Information from documentary sources is used without identification of the document concerned unless it is substantive in nature or unless verbatim quotations are utilized.

Except for the first and last two sections, the Project is described under the main task-area headings of the interview schedule. In many cases, sub-headings are related to the individual questions in the schedule. However, questions dealing directly with administrative process components (e.g. those relating to planning or evaluating in the Project) are considered in Chapter 6.

The first section of this chapter recounts the genesis of the Project, and the events which occurred before departure of the trainees to Canada. In the second-last section, the continuation of the Project in 1965 for a second year is described. The events surrounding the termination of the Project are explained in the final section. It should also be noted that unlike documentary sources of information,

the individuals interviewed frequently did not distinguish between first-group and second-group trainees.

GENESIS OF THE PROJECT AND PRE-DEPARTURE EVENTS

Genesis

The idea of an Uganda Project was broached during a visit to Uganda in 1963 by the Canadian High Commissioner resident in Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania. At a meeting with the Commissioner, the Ugandan Minister of Education expressed his concern over the "indifferent" training of primary school teachers in Uganda which had resulted in poorly organized work for early primary grade pupils aged six to eight years and affected their later progress in school. He then asked if Canada would train Ugandan teachers in primary teaching methods and subjects such as English, as well as whether primary school teacher-trainers could be sent to Uganda.

Communicating this request to the Director-General of EAO on September 7, 1963, the High Commissioner stated that he had told the Minister he did not know whether EAO gave primary school-level assistance, but promised to inquire into its feasibility. The Commissioner also noted the apparent consistency of the request with the views of the 1963 Ugandan Education Commission's Report. Replying on September 29, 1963, EAO's Director-General indicated that the office would look favourably upon requests for primary teacher-trainers. EAO would also be pleased to consider the training of Ugandan primary teachers in Canada should Uganda submit

an official request.[1]

Such a request was made in a letter from the Ugandan Minister to the High Commissioner in October, 1963. Two items of specific assistance asked for were twelve Canadian teacher trainers to visit Uganda in 1964-65, and a group of thirty or more "Ugandan primary teacher-trainers" to study Canadian teaching methods in Canada. In response to this request, the High Commissioner informed the Minister first that ten primary teachers for Canadian training was a more realistic figure, then asked for EAO's advice on the matter.

At EAO, documents showed some concern that "this idea[of the Project]may get out of hand". According to one official, up to thirty teachers could be trained only if EAO severely limited trainees from other countries; thus a figure of ten was more reasonable. This opinion was conveyed to the High Commissioner, as well as EAO's advice that in order to place ten candidates, it was desirable to receive a large number of nominations for selection. The relevant EAO section was apparently informed of the above negotiations one month after the Ugandan request arrived. However, a document showed that this delay was considered by an EAO official to be "of little consequence" since he did not think anything could be done "until September, 1964, anyway".

On August 27, 1964, a delegation from Uganda comprising the Minister of Education, the permanent Secretary of Education, two

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[1] A communication from EAO to the High Commission in 1965 presented contradictory evidence on this point; EAO claimed it informed the mission that it had "no program which would appear to meet the Ugandan requirement." (infra, p.167).

other Ministry officials, and the Ugandan High Commissioner to Canada, visited the EAO in Ottawa accompanied by the Canadian High Commissioner resident in Dar-es-Salaam. During discussions with EAO officials, the Minister informally applied for Canadian aid in a number of programs, including the Ugandan Project.

Up till this time, The University of Alberta had not been involved in any way with the negotiations between Uganda and Canada. On the same day as the Ugandan delegation's visit to EAO, Byron as Director of Technical Assistance telephoned the university's Dean of Education, Coutts, requesting the Faculty of Education to undertake a special training program for fifteen Ugandan primary teachers. Coutts made an immediate decision to accept EAO's request subject to the availability of residential accommodation for the trainees, and stipulated the costs as being the regular university fees plus costs of special lecturers. The Dean also recommended that the trainees be in Edmonton by the week of September 18. Soon after, he contacted the Chairman, Department of Elementary Education, and placed Faculty resources at that department's disposal to operate the Project.

The reason(s) for EAO's choice of The University of Alberta as the training institution are not clearly spelled out in the available evidence. Only one EAO respondent touched on this matter, stating that Alberta was chosen because the Canadian prairie provinces were well known for their hospitality; their "organizational climate, attitudinal emphasis, and multicultural emphasis were better than that in the larger cities where a certain narrowness exists". On September 2, 1964, the university received official confirmation from EAO that the trainees

would be coming. A fortnight later, the fifteen first-group trainees arrived in Canada.

Selection

The selection process appeared to have been started in January or early February, 1964, by the Ugandan Ministry of Education. Around that time, EAO requested the Office of the High Commissioner for Canada in Dar-es-Salaam for nomination forms of the trainees, original or certified true copies of their secondary school certificates[1], and teaching training diplomas, syllabi of courses taken, and transcripts of marks if available. No documentary evidence is available on the exact procedures employed for selecting both groups of trainees, though these are known for the two second-group trainees interviewed.

Trainee A revealed that she had been regularly applying to the Ugandan Ministry of Education after completing teacher-training and assuming teaching duties. She also believed that her principal's assessment of her capability at the end of the two-year probation period had been sent to the Ministry. About two months before leaving Uganda, she was invited to an interview at the Ministry, and offered a training scholarship to Canada by the interviewing committee of five or six officials at the Ministry. Trainee B had a rather different selection experience. During a visit to her school, the School Inspector observed her teaching a lesson to a Grade 3 class on "The Sudan." Impressed by her teaching performance, the Inspector then invited her to an interview where he asked her if she would like to go to England, Scotland, Ireland, Canada or Australia

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[1] EAO thus appeared to have had the prior expectation that the trainees would possess senior secondary school qualifications.

for further training. Only one feature was common in the experiences of the two trainees, namely, that apparently no prior, public announcement of availability of the training had been issued by the Ministry of Uganda's primary teaching force. Both trainees also had no clear idea of how the other trainees were selected. In addition, the evidence does not show whether more names of potential candidates than the numbers actually selected, were submitted as potential candidates.

Nine other interview respondents commented on the selection process. One university administrator suspected that Ugandan political considerations in part inspired the Project. According to this respondent, women in Uganda had started demanding the treatment accorded to Ugandan men sent overseas for training. Since there were not enough women with suitable secondary educational qualifications, women "infant" teachers were instead selected for the Project. Two university personnel also felt that "political influence" might have been used to select the trainees, the inclusion of a sister-in-law of one Ugandan Ministry official being cited as an illustration.

University officials also noticed the varied geographical regions in Uganda from which the trainees had come. Robertson thought this overriding criterion of choosing at least one girl from every tribe, with a few more from the larger tribes, "sensible". However, the academic basis on which trainees were chosen was a "mystery" to her. Another university respondent said some trainees had informed him they did not know about their own selection until two days before departure. Worth pointed out that the selection procedures were not very rigorous; the university had no involvement in the process and merely accepted

whichever trainees were sent over.

Responses from EAO personnel indicated that the office had no physical participation in selection, which was entirely conducted by Ugandan authorities. The reason given was that EAO had no resident officer in Uganda. EAO thus relied on a "paper" review of trainees' qualifications by a selection committee in Ottawa. Two EAO respondents gave almost opposite views of the quality of selection. One claimed that the trainees were the "best of primary teachers" in Uganda; the other deplored the selection as "poor". The Government of Uganda indicated, however, the basis of selection on the A9 nomination forms of first-group trainees as follows:

> Being a very good teacher, she has been selected by the Ugandan government to have further teacher training in Canada ... One of the outstanding teachers, it is thought that with further training in teaching of infants, she would be of valuable service to the country.[1]

Pre-departure Events

No information was available on the events which occurred after selection of the first-group trainees, and prior to their departure from Uganda. Responses of trainees A and B, however, shed some light on the experiences of the second group. The trainees were not brought together as a group until just before departure at the airport. No pre-departure orientation was given, nor were the second-group trainees officially

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[1] Government of Uganda to Government of Canada, Forms A9 (Revised October 1962) of two second-group trainees, June 7, 1965 and July 31, 1965 respectively, External Aid Office Files, Canadian International Development Agency.

placed in contact with returned first-group trainees. Trainee B opined that the two months allowed her to get reading was sufficient since the Ministry of Education, being a governmental body, had managed to prepare her passport within a week. Robertson, on the other hand, recalled that some trainees had been brought into Kampala on twenty-four hours' notice over long tortuous routes, given vaccinations on the spot, and then sent off in the plane. Wannop voiced a similar comment; also, owing to passport and money problems, some trainees missed their flight and arrived late in Edmonton.

STUDENT PERSONNEL

Personal Characteristics; Academic and Professional Qualifications

The initial size of the first and second groups of trainees were respectively fifteen and thirty. These figures were reduced when one trainee in 1964, and two in 1965, had to return to Uganda before their training ended. All the trainees were women teachers, of average age 25 for first-group trainees (range 21-32 years), and 26 for twenty-six of the thirty second-group trainees (range 22-31 years). The ages of four second-group trainees are unknown. In 1964, the group included two married trainees; in 1965, there were eight, of whom four had three children each and one a single child.

The tribal composition of first-group trainees were two Baganda, three Basoga, one each of Bunyoro, Iteso, Bagisu, Gulu, Acholi, Toro, Sebei, Bugwere, and Ankole, and one of unknown tribal origin. In the second group, the numbers were Baganda (7), Bagisu (4), Basoga, Banyarwanda, and Bakiga (2 each), Karamoja, Kakwa, Iteso, Acholi, Sebei,

Alur and Lango (1 each), unknown (4), and two Muslims. The latter were the only Asian Ugandans among both groups of trainees.

Academically, all the first-group trainees possessed the Primary School Leaving Certificate. Eleven of them attended junior secondary school before proceeding to two years of primary teacher college training. Another three trainees spent four years in a primary teachers college immediately after primary school. Among the second-group trainees, all but two attended six years of primary education before four further years of primary teacher training. The two exceptions, trainees A and B, obtained School Leaving Certificates prior to two years in a primary teacher training college. Their teaching grade was hence III, whereas the other trainees were Grade II teachers.

One first-group trainee had prior specialization in infant teaching; two others possessed in addition Domestic Science Certificates. A few second-group trainees may also have spent one year of further specialization in a domestic science college. In terms of professional experience, seven first-group trainees had taught for three years, and one trainee each for four, five, one and seven years. From the personal descriptions of the first-group trainees, the schools they taught in were in general small (around 200-300 pupils with 6-9 teachers), lacking in teaching aids and books. The shortage of teachers often required full-time teaching duties for principals, while buildings were also poor in quality.

Among first-group trainees, administrative experience was limited to four who had been headmistresses of their schools for two to four years at the time of their selection, and one trainee who was Deputy

Head Games mistress at a teacher training college for three years. Two others had been the Senior Woman Grade teacher for one to two years, one was the acting nurse in her school, and another had spent eight months as an assistant tutor at a teacher training college.

Reception and Orientation

Both groups of trainees were initially received by EAO personnel on arrival in Canada. During the two to three days stay in Ottawa, there was a limited orientation at the office on life in Canada. An EAO respondent stated that the office assumed orientation would be conducted at the university. Trainee B felt the Ottawa reception was "very good", especially the bus sight-seeing tours around the city. Trainee A recalled that during a briefing at EAO, the trainees were told about Edmonton being their destination, and the university residences they would live in. EAO also gave them a foreign students' handbook which trainee A was not able to read immediately because of the initial excitement. She felt that such a handbook should have been given earlier when the trainees were still in Uganda.

Before arriving in Edmonton, the first-group trainees stopped-over at Calgary, where staff of The University of Calgary met them and then guided them on a tour of the university. At Edmonton, the trainees were met by University of Alberta personnel including Coutts, Sparling, Robertson, and the Dean of Men, members of the Gold Key Society of Edmonton, and the President of the Education Undergraduate Society (EUS) of the university. The second-group trainees flew direct to Edmonton from Ottawa, and were received by Robertson, Sparling, Richardson (Warden of Lister Hall, a university residence), and some

members of the Zonta Club, a women's social organization in Edmonton.

Because the first-group trainees arrived at the university on September 19, 1964, there was no time for orientation before the registration period started. During this period, EUS members helped the trainees through registration procedures, and in cooperation with the Gold Key Society, arranged for trainees to attend various sports and social functions of the regular university orientation program. EUS also designated Canadian "Big Sisters" to help look after specific trainees. The wives of some Faculty of Education staff organized three expeditions to assist trainees in buying winter clothing. Bank accounts were opened for the trainees, who, like university personnel, were under the assumption that the Uganda Government would be sending monthly allowances to the trainees.

Robertson, as overall coordinator of the project, extended orientation for first-group trainees into their reading course which she was instructing. The trainees were allowed at the beginning of each lesson to raise personal or group problems, such as what "hi" meant, and whether it was polite to ask lecturers to go slower owing to their difficulties in English and note-taking. Trainees were also asked to write two short essays about themselves and their educational background, which provided useful information to their instructors. A Gates Reading Survey-Form 2 (Grades 3-10 inclusive) was administered to estimate trainees' reading speed and accuracy, vocabulary, and comprehension level in English. Results of this test were used to guide future work of instructors.

Orientation for second-group trainees was more thorough, since

at the university's insistence, the trainees arrived a fortnight prior to start of registration. The objectives of orientation were described by Robertson to be

> (1) to acquaint trainees with the Canadian way of life and to adjust them to customs, food, clothing and facilities at the university; (2) to assess and raise the achievement level of the trainees in English and to develop further library and study skills.[1]

Group discussions and private interviews allowed the clarification of non-academic needs of the trainees. A staff member of the university's Department of Home Economics gave advice on "wise" shopping. Regan, as director of the Phi Delta Kappa "culture shock" project[2], discussed the findings of the project's observations on first-group trainees' experiences, with the intention of reducing culture shock for the second-group trainees. The reactions of the latter during the discussion were considered by Regan as a powerful confirmation of the hypothesis of culture shock.[3] Other non-academic activities included production of tapes giving correct pronunciation of trainees' names for the benefit of instructors, and a "get-acquainted" party organized by the Zonta Club.

Academic orientation consisted of three hours study sessions each morning, with the first eighty minutes spent on written English. This was followed by forty minutes work in library and study skills,

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1 Report of the Uganda Project. University of Alberta. 1965-66. Faculty of Education, Department of Elementary Education, University of Alberta Archives, File Accession No. 70-10-32.

2 Elaborated in Chapter 6.

3 Regan, interview.

and then one hour on speech training, focusing on such activities as use of the telephone, the art of conversation, and the making of introductions. Special tests and assignments allowed university personnel to assess the needs of the trainees in relation to planning for the program of study. In her report of the 1965 orientation, Robertson noted that the Project staff considered an orientation course to be a very important part of any international project, and that both academic and non-academic components were essential. The latter were especially valuable to the trainees.

Housing

Immediately on arrival in Edmonton, both groups of trainees entered residences pre-arranged by university officials. All first-group trainees stayed in Pembina Hall, which was at that time an on-campus residence for female graduate students. In 1965, most of the trainees were also in Pembina; five or six resided in Lister Hall, also a university residence, while two were accommodated in a nearby church residence, St. Jude's. Consequently, meals for the trainees were in the dining hall or cafetaria of the residence. The decision to place the trainees in campus residences instead of private off-campus lodgings was made by Coutts and Sparling on the grounds that the trainees had no prior experience living abroad.

Academic Problems

A variety of academic problems were encountered, and appeared to apply equally to both groups of trainees. To begin with, an inadequate facility in English shown by the trainees resulted in communication difficulties between instructors and trainees. One exception was in

Mathematics, where the instructor considered the trainees "quite proficient" in English and it was more a case of him trying to understand the trainees than vice versa. Possibly, this might be attributed to the more "universal" character of the language of Mathematics compared to those of other disciplines. Despite the language difficulty, most of the trainees apparently showed little interest in improving their oral English, owing to a conviction that learning a language is learning vocabulary and grammar.

Another difficulty which consistently surfaced during the study program was that of conceptualization. In psychology, social studies, reading, mathematics, science and the teaching practicum, trainees experienced serious problems in understanding and using concepts. Worth pointed out that the reading level of some of the learning materials used were "just beyond the comprehension" of the trainees. Also, the materials were rooted in another culture. The psychology instructor found the trainees unwilling to question, and unable to draw inferences or generalizations. In particular, the statistics component of the course proved to be very difficult since they had never been required to think about why an examination is given, nor how to evaluate the effectiveness of the questions asked.

The trainees were poor in understanding and solving mathematical problems, though their ability in quick memorization facilitated performance in mechanical operations. In science, they found the "scientific approach" unfamiliar. The music instructor in 1964 stated that the trainees objected to being asked the "why of processes", and lacked perseverance in difficult tasks. Practice teaching was difficult as the trainees were not used to taking the initiative, and preferred

to be told what to do. Some of the second group trainees experienced additional difficulty since they had not previously taught infant grades in Uganda.

Many of these academic problems clearly reflected differences between the trainees' Ugandan educational experiences and the Canadian educational context. Indeed, Regan recalled that during visits to the homes of members of the "culture-shock" committee, trainees confessed their dislike of the "direct" approach in teaching. It was considered "crude, low-class, and ill-bred", since it forced students to give opinions, and to commit themselves to particular points of view. Trainees A and B, compared to the other trainees in their group, had senior secondary qualifications, and thus initially found the course content too easy. The problem was solved by allowing them to join a few regular university courses. Such action led, however, to some discontent among other members of the group. Appeasement was brought about by informing the latter that, while grouping was flexible and adjustible to individual progress, all trainees would finally receive the same kind of certificate.

Non-Academic Problems

One immediately-felt non-academic problem was over food. Thus Sparling, in charge of Pembina Hall, recalled that some trainees did not eat meat for "three weeks" since university prepared meals had sauces on meats which they did not appreciate. According to trainee B, the African Ugandans in her group used to complain to Sparling about the style of residential cooking, suggesting rice be served every day if their staple of green bananas was not available. Also cited by several respondents as a source of personal stress was the cold Edmonton winter. Trainee B

remembered the 1965-66 winter as being particularly severe, and that some trainees reacted by missing classes especially in December and January. These two items of food and weather were, in fact, listed by twenty-one of the twenty-eight second-group trainees as the least liked of their Canadian experiences on an evaluation form which they completed at the end of their program. A third problem that affected the trainees in general was homesickness.

More individual-specific problems were one case, and two cases of pregnancy in the first and second group respectively. Though the university offered to take care of the first-group trainee through pregnancy and birth, EAO policy ruled in favour of her immediate return to Uganda. In a letter to Coutts, Byron clarified EAO's position as follows:

> This was not a moral judgement on our part but an administrative decision based on our experience with previous similar cases. We are satisfied that the mother and child stand less chance of rejection by family and friends if the child is born within the family circle. Moreover, our experience is that in the circumstances, the parent of a child born in Canada suffers a break with the home environment, often to the extent of wishing to remain in Canada. This, of course, would upset the purpose of technical assistance and would eventually establish undesirable precedents. Further in the event of complications, not excluding the possibility of death or mental breakdown, there may be reflections cast upon the care given to the mother in Canada.[1]

Of the two second-group trainees who were pregnant, one had prior knowledge of her condition but did not inform Ugandan authorities. She told her fellow trainees that even if she did not complete her course, she was satisfied with having seen Canada. Both the trainees

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[1] R. E. Byron, letter to H. T. Coutts, February 17, 1965, University of Alberta Archives, File Accession No. 70-10-31.

were sent home in December, 1965. In addition, one or two trainees apparently attempted unsuccessfully to avoid returning home by wishing to marry Canadian boys.

Only minor health problems, including an appendix operation, were encountered. More serious were the worries affecting some trainees vis-a-vis family responsibilities in Uganda. Robertson noted that many trainees, though they sent back hundreds of dollars for maintaining their children and relatives, had no control over expenditure of the money. Some received news that their children
for while the woman left in charge was spending the money irresponsibly. The problem of child-care was compounded in the case of trainees whose husbands were themselves studying away from home. One trainee experienced great difficulty in looking after several brothers and sisters at home; eventually the Ugandan government, at EAO's request, agreed to pay for their school fees. A few trainees also found trouble in budgeting personal expenses, so that after spending indiscriminately on luxury items, they could not afford essential texts and stationery.

There were problems, too, affecting interrelationships among trainees themselves. The varied tribal origins proved to be a source of tension and disharmony. Often, one tribe was represented by only one trainee, who consequently suffered from "language isolation or loneliness". Trainee B recalled the initial rivalry between trainees from different regions of Uganda, though after two or three months, more harmonious relationships apparently prevailed. Ugandan politics caused some disagreements between trainees supporting the Kabaka or traditional monarch of Uganda, and those for the prime minister.

Cultural factors also gave rise to problems of residential arrangement. Married trainees, for example, resented having to share rooms since it violated traditional Ugandan customs. One trainee, who was a chief's daughter, expected preferential treatment and thus became involved in some disputes with fellow trainees as well as some university personnel. The two Asian Ugandans were observed by one instructor as being "isolated" from the African trainees. However, an Asian trainee herself stated that she was always included in any group discussion of news her African counterparts happened to receive from home.

In general, it appeared that the trainees attempted to display an outward demeanour of harmony. One university respondent attributed this to the trainees' fear of being sent home. The tribal animosities were only accidentally discovered by an instructor during class discussion on educational philosophy in Uganda. Apart from within-group relations problems, there were also many relating to cross-cultural communication and "culture shock" -- not unexpected since the trainees were precipitated into a significantly different cultural milieu without prior preparation. These problems will be discussed in the next chapter. Last, but not least, the trainees were observed by a university administrator as showing a "terrible desire to be accepted and to cause no problems". This apparently led them to endure physical suffering in silence especially in the initial period of arrival when they felt "they must not disturb or admit a weakness". The administrator offered the explanation that probably before leaving Uganda, the trainees were told by authorities to be "highly accommodating".

Counselling

No special counsellor was assigned to the Project. An EAO respondent pointed out that in theory, counselling was supposed to be a responsibility of EAO officials via correspondence, but in practice this was not feasible. Thus practically all counselling matters were left to The University of Alberta. The trainees, however, did not make use of the university counselling services in a systematic fashion or on their own initiative. Robertson suggested that such services might have been "too formal" to the trainees' liking.

The primary person who dealt with most of the personal academic and non-academic problems of the trainees was Robertson. Substantial assistance came from the residential administration. Thus Sparling at Pembina Hall, and Richardson at Lister Hall, made themselves available to the trainees for consultation. The president of Pembina's residents committee also visited sick trainees in their rooms, or engaged them in conversation in the lounge. Sparling noted that the trainees had no hesitation in asking questions. Residential staff, if they found it necessary, would refer trainees to the relevant university or Project personnel, who on occasions, were even invited to the hall to meet the trainee concerned.

The responses of Corlett and trainees A and B indicate, however, that those members of the Zonta Club who acted as "host families" to the trainees, were consulted very frequently by the trainees on personal problems. Though the Zontans were not given any formal counselling roles by the university, the trainees would ask their hosts during home visits for advice on how things are done in Canada, where and how

to buy things, and so on. Corlett remembered reassuring the trainees that their instructors would make allowances for English language proficiency. The trainees apparently preferred to talk to Zontan ladies more since they were visiting their homes and had established friendly, informal relationships with the ladies.

Apart from the Zontans, members of the Phi Delta Kappa "culture shock" committee also frequently encouraged trainees to voice opinions on difficulties encountered. With respect to academic counselling, Worth noted that some instructors tried to offer advice, but most experienced great difficulties in communicating with the trainees. A special instance of counselling occurred in October, 1964, when an educational consultant attached to the Ugandan embassy in New York visited the university. In a private meeting with first-group trainees, the consultant listened to all their "troubles" which he then communicated to university personnel for consideration and action.

Achievement and Records

Administrative opinion of the trainees' achievement in the academic program were generally favourable. Christie recalled that in meetings with Coutts and Robertson, achievement was felt to be satisfactory. Worth regarded achievement as "extremely high" and "much better than expected", considering the background of the trainees, and how ill-equipped the university was in adapting the program to the trainees' needs.

Documentary evidence on achievement is not comprehensive, providing only limited information on actual grades obtained. For

example, the mean mark and range for eight subjects in the 1964-65 final examinations were as follows:

	Mean (%)	Range (%)
English	58	30-85
Practicum	71	55-82
Fundamentals of Elementary Ed.	67	51-78
Art	72	45-90
Physical Education	53	41-62
Educational Foundations	66	55-80
Educational Psychology	64	55-90
Music	66	46-77

Some idea of the trainees' performance relative to Canadian students was given by a few instructors. In educational psychology, the first-group trainees wrote the regular November test given to all freshmen but none obtained the passing mark. Only the scores of two trainees overlapped with those of regular Canadian students. "Tremendous progress" was attained, however, in the second term, leading the instructor to give the same final examination to the trainees as that taken in the regular class. In physical education, first-group trainees achieved scores comparable to the rest of the class, though their main weakness was in vocabulary. Taking into account cultural bias, Purvis found the performance of the trainees on the California Junior High School Standardized Science Test adequate.

The achievement of individual members of each group was varied. A few were excellent, while some experienced great difficulty. Comparing the two groups, Robertson stated that trainees in the top achieving bracket of the second group were much better than any first-group trainee. However, the low achievers were equally poor in both groups. In the first year, one trainee was singled out as being very capable. Though

the educational psychology instructor urged that she be allowed to remain at least another two years, and volunteered to seek help from Edmonton service associations for a special scholarship, her lack of matriculation qualifications meant that the university could only recommend to EAO that she be returned to Canada for further studies in the near future. The two Asian Ugandans in the second group also achieved very highly. In their case, the university made a very strong recommendation to EAO for a three-year extension leading to a Bachelor of Education degree.

In response to this request, the Permanent Secretary of the Ugandan Ministry of Education informed the Canadian High Commissioner in Dar-es-Salaam that the Central Scholarships Committee could not allow the extensions on two main grounds: firstly, the Committee felt there were enough facilities in Uganda for such courses, and it would be a waste of money training people in Canada for a course available at The University of East Africa; secondly, the trainees were sent on a special course to qualify in methods of infant teaching, and it would defeat Uganda's purpose if the trainees obtained a degree enabling them to teach at senior secondary level rather than infants.

The records that were kept on each trainee were essentially an individual file containing marks and anectodal observations of instructional staff. Robertson, as administrator in charge, retained a copy of each file. EAO was also sent duplicate copies of the records on each trainee. By and large, however, Robertson found such records "almost meaningless because there were no standards that could be set". Residential personnel did not keep any ongoing records of the trainees. At the end of their program, trainees were awarded certificates which

listed the courses taken by the trainees and the number of hours spent in each.

General Comments

An opinion of the trainees which was consistently expressed by university personnel centred on their attitudes and motivation towards the study program. Despite the various academic and non-academic problems encountered, the trainees in general impressed instructors with their enthusiasm and eagerness to learn. Documents showed that the first-group trainees were highly cooperative in their courses, and receptive to new ideas. During observation tours of Edmonton schools, for example, the trainees displayed keen interest and insight, carefully making notes and asking the Canadian teachers many questions about classroom administration and curriculum. The mathematics instructor recalled that trainees enthusastically asked him to help them locate shops where they could buy instructional materials such as tapes, chalkboards, and texts used in the mathematics class which they could bring back to Uganda. Thus, at the second interim appraisal of the first-year Project in February, 1965, university staff identified the "major strength" of the trainees as "the interest of the students in obtaining as much information and as many ideas as they could to take back to Uganda".

No equivalent information on attitudes of second-group trainees is available, except for the report of the physical education instructor that the trainees were most eager to learn new methods and knowledge. About two-third of the trainees joined an informal swimming class one hour per week, and learned to swim at least twenty-five yards.

Nonetheless, Robertson's opinion that the second-group trainees were more responsive than their 1964 counterparts suggests that learning motivation was equally, if not more impressive in 1965.

Other general comments voiced by interview respondents included one view that between arrival in, and departure from Canada, there was little change in the trainees, and another respondent's somewhat opposing observation of a transformation among some trainees towards increased sophistication. According to her, these trainees even looked "American" at one of the last social functions. Another university respondent found that the trainees tended to be passive and "condescending", going out of their way to be courteous. One EAO administrator described the trainees as an "alert, intelligent group of teachers", but who were not at all prepared for the Western world.

STAFF PERSONNEL

Administrative Staff

At the EAO, the main administrator concerned with the Project was the training programme officer in charge of all sponsored teacher trainees in Canada. His duties included reception of the trainees in Ottawa on arrival in, and before departure from Canada, administration of trainees' stipends, and dealing via correspondence with routine administrative matters and problems of individual trainees (e.g. departure and luggage arrangements). Immediately supervising this training officer was the Head of the Human Resources Section. Documents revealed that major policy issues also involved senior administrative officers of EAO, viz., the Director-General of the office, and the

Directors of the Education, Training, and Technical Assistance Divisions. The available evidence, however, does not clearly identify the specific responsibilities of these officers vis-a-vis the Project.

The de facto administrator in charge of the Project at The University of Alberta was Robertson. Though no official title was accorded to her position, it involved practically all aspects of organizing, coordinating, and implementing the program of study. In 1964-65, Robertson was awarded the equivalent of a graduate teaching assistantship in addition to the one she already held, as compensation for her Project duties. Just prior to the beginning of the second year, she joined the Department of Elementary Education as an assistant professor. The Chairman, Department of Elementary Education, and the Dean, Faculty of Education, were the two other main administrative staff involved with the Project. Robertson consulted with the former on the appropriateness of academic plans, while the Dean was the chief contact with the President of the university, and with the EAO.

No officer in the Student Affairs Department of the university was specifically assigned to the Project. In the residences, Sparling as Dean of Women, was responsible for seeing to the housing and general welfare of the trainees. Assistance came from the President of the Pembina Hall Committee, whose duties consisted primarily of informal contact with the trainees within the residence. In 1965-66, the Warden of Lister Hall was responsible for the trainees living in that residence.

Over the two years of Project operation, the same administrative

set-up was maintained. While university personnel remain unchanged, a change of training officer at EAO in the second year occurred. No detailed information is available concerning administrative staffing in Uganda, except that Ministry of Education officials were responsible for selecting trainees and arranging for their departure to Canada. Also, as described earlier, the Canadian High Commissioner resident in Dar-es-Salaam, and the Ugandan Minister of Education, both played major roles in the initial stages of the Project prior to arrival of the trainees in Canada. Finally, mention has been made of the Education Consultant to the Ugandan mission in New York, who played a brief administrative role on behalf of the Ugandan Government in 1964.

Instructional Staff

According to Robertson, selection of instructional staff was based on two criteria: those who could have coped with the program most successfully, and with availability of time. She thus held discussions with instructors in various departments of the Faculty of Education to find out who would be willing and able to participate. Besides regular Faculty professors, several part-time staff also participated as special lecturers or tutors. They were usually graduate students in the Department of Elementary Education. The only administrator of the Project also teaching was Robertson, who instructed in reading and educational administration. There were some changes of staff over the two years, and Worth recalled that these occurred because of an individual instructor's self-perception of inadequacy, or the perceived inadequacy of an instructor's ability to relate with the trainees.

In the first year, five professors instructed the trainees: two in educational foundations, one each in educational psychology, mathematics education, and science education. Part-time instructors included at least three in Fundamentals of Elementary Education (Social Studies, Languages, Science, Mathematics), one in Art, one in Teaching English as a Second Language, and one in Physical Education. A tutor each was engaged to assist trainees cope with the lectures in Educational Foundations and Educational Psychology. Instructors in 1965-66 included four professors in Science, Mathematics, Foundations, and Reading, and six part-time lecturers in physical education (2), social studies (1), English (1), Art (1), and educational psychology (1). A speech consultant was also employed.

Instructional staff in the community education course held for second-group trainees in 1966 included five University of Alberta professors, the Director of ARDA (Area Rehabilitation and Development Administration, Department of Agriculture, Province of Alberta), the Community Development Coordinator of Alberta, and a graduate student of the university's Department of Agricultural Economics. All these gave lectures on topics related to community development. Two group trainers were also engaged.

Support and Informal Staff

At EAO, the major support staff was a clerk who assumed responsibilities for student files, cheques, and non-problematic routine matters on behalf of the training officer. Apart from two or three

graduate students who helped during orientation activities, and also observed the trainees during their teaching practicum in Edmonton schools each year, there were no other formally assigned university support staff. In 1964, eight Edmonton elementary school teachers acted as cooperating teachers in the practicum. For the second-group trainees, seventeen cooperating teachers participated.

A number of individuals also provided informal staffing for the Project. Thus members of the Phi Delta Kappa "culture shock" committee involved themselves in adjustment problems of the trainees, while Zonta Club ladies contributed extensive volunteer help in extra-curricular and social activities. During the 1966 Community Education course at the Vermilion Agricultural College, the Assistant District Agriculturist of Vermilion, and the Editor of the Vermilion Standard, acted as informal resource persons on field trips. The wife of the course director gave informal guidance and counselling to the trainees at Vermilion. In addition, several regular staff members of the college gave lessons in sewing, typing, cooking,sports, dancing and visual aids.

Adequacy of Staffing

Interview responses to the question of adequacy of staffing were in general favourable. Coutts believed the Project had the best staff in childhood education available in the university. Two EAO respondents were impressed with the performance of university staff, while trainee B stated that the staff did "a very good job". In particular, all the trainees in her group were very pleased with Robertson who used to be "everywhere doing all the work very efficiently".

Robertson herself, however, expressed some critical remarks concerning staffing arrangements. In the first place, many of the staff assigned to the Project were graduate students at the same time, and consequently faced time constraints. Yet they had "practically the entire responsibility for setting up the total academic and field experiences program". A second problem was the "incompatibility" between trainees and many instructors who had had no previous experience with foreign students. Much time was apparently spent by both in overcoming "cultural shock"; this problem compounded that of lack of time and equipment for adapting the program to trainees' needs. In Robertson's words:

> our inability as staff members to adapt to them was very much a problem as it was their inability to meet us. It was a serious two-way deficit.[1]

Some staff found it a traumatic experience to be expected to produce under such conditions. Robertson felt they "could not let go of a regular program, even though they knew they must". While she acknowledged that many academics read a lot about life in many places, she seriously questioned if they could be very helpful without having actually lived in those places.

With regard to EAO staffing, an EAO respondent expressed satisfaction since it was a "good structure for getting trainees from the government to the university on a field of study basis". He thought that structure was probably better than the existing regional system in which each region of developing countries is handled by a

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[1] Robertson, interview

different CIDA official, and a university may thus have to deal with different CIDA personnel even if the trainees concerned were on the same type of Project.

CURRICULUM[1]

Goals and Objectives

A statement sent by the Ugandan Ministry of Education to the Office of the High Commissioner in Dar-es-Salaam, and subsequently to the EAO, indicated that the Ugandan government was the primary formulator of Project goals. Uganda's desire for the Project was apparently a desire to implement one of two solutions recommended by the 1963 Uganda Education Commission to improve the quality of primary teaching, viz., "the improvement of the professional capacity and attainment of primary teachers through further courses of training". More specific curriculum objectives listed in the statement included the following:

(a) there should be considerable emphasis in infant work, art, and physical education;

(b) nature study, with emphasis on the observation of nature, should not be neglected;

(c) trainees should "acquire a facility for English reading", and "reading for information";

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[1] The content of the curriculum is detailed in Appendix D. In each year, the study program extended over the usual winter session of the university (September-April), except in 1965, when the trainees attended a six-week community education course from May 4 - June 10, 1966.

(d) as much practice as possible in speech training should be given, and "small conversation groups, possibly with college students, would be valuable";

(e) trainees should have opportunities for writing and acting their own plays;

(f) "initiative" should be developed, with practice given in making apparatus with special reference to the use of cheap and readily available materials;

(g) there should be a considerable period of school observation, preferably in rural (but not one-teacher) schools, and emphasizing school and class organization;

(h) some instruction in needle work could be included.

These objectives were partially and briefly summarized in the A8 form[1] submitted by Uganda to Canada. Thus the ultimate purpose or object of the training was to improve the professional knowledge of the trainees as primary teachers. Under the heading of "training facilities required", Uganda specified the following items:

> additional background knowledge to improve students' general education -- special emphasis on reading, speaking and writing English, academic work in elementary education and child studies ... to see well conducted infant and primary classes particularly in rural classes ... block period of practical teaching of general subjects in local infant and primary schools.[2]

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1 The purpose of A8 forms in Canadian aid programs is "to ensure that complete and detailed information is provided to enable the Government of Canada to make an adequate appreciation of the nature of technical training required."

2 Government of Uganda to the Government of Canada, Form A8 (Revised October 1962), 1964 and August 13, 1965, External Aid Office Files, Canadian International Development Agency.

With respect to the total length of training thought necessary, it is significant that Uganda cited two years in the 1964 A8 form. In 1965, however, the form showed the reduced figure of one year.

Interview respondents generally agreed that the Project's main goal was to upgrade the trainees' teaching abilities. University administrators also stated that the trainees would return to responsibilities in teacher training colleges, or to provide inservice training to teachers in their own schools According to one EAO respondent, the trainees were expected to lead discussion groups among other teachers on their return to Uganda.[1] Trainee A, on the other hand, stated that the goals were not made clear to her before leaving Uganda.

For the study program, Robertson recalled that because the first group arrived just prior to the beginning of the academic term and no information was available on their educational backgrounds, no pre-planning or setting up of goals was done. Instructors were delegated to find out for themselves where trainees were at in their subject-areas, and then attempt to give them something which would be helpful. For the second group, specific objectives were apparently spelled out. Some examples listed in the 1965-1966 Report of the Project are shown in Table 2.

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[1] A document showed that this view developed only in 1965, after it was discovered by Robertson from correspondence that returned first-group trainees were expected to give refresher courses to fellow Ugandan teachers in Canadian teaching methods. The visit of the Coutts-Reeves university evaluation team to Uganda in 1966 did not, however, give the impression that this was indeed the case.

Table 2

Objectives of Some Courses in the 1965-1966 Curriculum[1]

Course	Objectives
I. Fundamentals of Primary Education	To provide opportunity for discussion about the basic principles of methodology and to see selected methods demonstrated to elementary education.
e.g. Language arts	(1) to further their understanding of the teaching of English as a Second Language: listening, speaking, reading, and writing; (2) to acquaint the Uganda teachers with the basal development reading program in Canada.
e.g. Mathematics	(1) to help the teachers clarify and broaden their own objectives in the teaching of mathematics in the primary grades; (2) to further their understanding of the whole number system, the base ten numeration system, the use of whole numbers in problems solving; (3) to suggest, by example, some teaching techniques and devices.
II. Educational Foundations: History and Sociology of Education	(1) to develop an awareness of the general and specific functions of education in a society; (2) to develop an understanding of educational development in various periods of history; (3) to acquaint students with educators of the past who significantly influenced their times and ours.
III. Art Education	(1) to acquaint students with visual art experiences through: a. use of tools and techniques b. qualities and characteristics of Design c. development of appreciation (2) to obtain knowledge of child development in Art; (3) to stimulate perception relative to their own environment as a source of motivation; (4) to obtain knowledge of the role of the teacher during an art lesson.

[1] Report of the Uganda Project, University of Alberta, 1965-66, Department of Elementary Education, University of Alberta Archives, File Accession No.: 70-10-32.

The role of EAO in goal-setting was non-existent. Two EAO respondents indicated that the office merely responded to a need expressed by the Ugandan government. According to one of these respondents, the EAO considered itself a facilitator only, to clarify what needs to be done and what can be done and met by a university, and to see that planned programs are implemented. Worth pointed out that even the university was not involved in the setting of goals; "the faculty merely accepted them without assessment or challenge". The goals referred to so far are academic in nature. All organizational intermediaries also expressed a concern with social goals. Thus, in their proposal for the Project, the Ugandan authorities actually gave some suggestions for the social programmes of the trainees, viz., visits to families with children, contact for Catholic trainees with the local order of nuns during the holidays, and contacts with women's organizations to observe women's place in Canadian society. Christie recalled that both he and university staff believed in the need for providing for social needs of the trainees, and that education at the community level was also essential.

Changes

Robertson cited four major changes in the curriculum over the two years of the Project. During the first year itself, the trainees were withdrawn almost immediately from the regular university classes in which they had initially been placed. The primary reason for this was the inability of the trainees to cope with the English language

levels in the courses, so that they were making "totally incomprehensible notes" and "bothered the instructors by just sitting". Such problems in 1964 led to the increased emphasis in English proficiency training during the second-year orientation program.

Thirdly, whereas first-group trainees were all kept as one group taking common courses, five second-group trainees were allowed to attend two regular university courses in school library services. Three of these trainees also took a speech education course. Some trainees poor in English received additional non-credit English in place of educational foundations. The fourth major change Robertson recalled was the attempt to provide more "practical working out of theory" and more field experiences in Canadian school situations in the 1965 program. This change stemmed from the belief of university personnel that the first-year trainees had been expected by Ugandan authorities to give refresher courses in Canadian methods of teaching on returning home.

Individual instructors apparently also changed their courses as they went along. Worth noted that instructors often had to go back and redesign a course after discovering it did not work. The professor teaching educational foundations, for example, shifted from use of participative discussions to which trainees had responded poorly, to trainees themselves presenting lessons in sociology and history of education to a "mythical grade five class" composed of their own peers. Atkinson, who treated the trainees initially as just another section of the university's mathematics curriculum course, very soon had to change his objectives. The trainees were used to the structured approach to mathematics teaching modelled on the British grammar school tradition.

Also, they had previously learned arithmetic by rote and while skilled in computation techniques, had little understanding of mathematical theory (e.g. commutative law of multiplication). Thus Atkinson had to change the curriculum to focus on concepts normally taken for granted as basic knowledge possessed by students at that level. Purvis likewise adjusted his science course as he came to know the trainees better, and received more feedback on their knowledge gaps and Ugandan teaching methods and content.

The lessons learnt from the first year were apparently communicated to second-year instructors prior to the start of the 1965 program. Robertson informed them that as the trainees fight a constant battle to understand in English, they learned best through demonstration, audiovisual aids, and discussions. However, the greatest challenge was considered to be the task of "developing basic concepts using basic English in such a way that the Ugandan teachers would not be offended". Since the teachers were people of status in Uganda, they would be offended if they perceived instructors to be "talking down to them".

Realism and Workability

The question of whether the curriculum for the trainees was realistic and favourable evoked responses which varied from very favourable to quite unfavourable opinions. Thus trainee A believed "it was very realistic and most of it was practical", recalling that the trainees in her group used to discuss over coffee what they had seen in Edmonton schools in comparison with the Ugandan system. Moreover, instructors taught by telling trainees the method Canadians

would use in a certain situation, and then asking them how they would do it at home. For example, second-group trainees took the Metropolitan Readiness Tests and adapted it for use with Ugandan children. The course also gave trainee A more of an idea of how to use scrap material in the classroom, something not usually done in Uganda itself. This result ties in with the fact that Robertson had asked cooperating school-teachers to stress the more basic principles of their teaching, in order to avoid the trainees being "overwhelmed" by the abundance of material equipment and becoming convinced that very little teaching can be done without a wide variety of expensive equipment.

Trainee B considered the curriculum "quite workable", mentioning in particular the utility of the reading method which had been suggested by Robertson. The mathematics taught in the Project, however, was apparently different from that in Uganda, and in her opinion "did not work out very well". Among University of Alberta respondents, a common item in the responses was that formulation of a realistic and workable curriculum was hampered by a lack of first-hand knowledge of the Ugandan situation. A mitigating factor, though, resided in the previous experience of Robertson in Ethiopia. The two instructional staff interviewed, while admitting the difficulties arising from such lack of knowledge, were satisfied that they had tried to give the trainees a realistic and workable curriculum in their subjects. Worth added some support to this view when he recalled that though the staff was initially dismayed by the trainees' capacities and abilities, some instructors thought they had a "fighting chance" of achieving the goals

towards the end of the study program. Still,he questioned the realism of the music education course which, in his mind, was run as though the trainees were going to teach in exclusive British schools:

> They were getting all prepared to go back and teach children in Uganda all the songs and all the activities that the fine upper class young ladies of Britain would learn.[1]

A more critical view of the curriculum was expressed by Robertson, who did not think "the curriculum was ever realistic or workable", though she acknowledged that "many people made the best possible attempt" to make it so. She gave a number of reasons for this view. Firstly, the university in her opinion did not have at its command the necessary type of physical or academic resources (e.g. staff, time, equipment, rooms) to give a curriculum the trainees really needed. Being used to a highly concrete, activity-based curriculum, and training in which they were told not only what to do but also how to do it,the trainees conflicted with university staff who felt they ought to "start thinking for themselves". Though instructors placed increased emphasis in 1965 on the "practical working out of theory", they were not able to do what the trainees really wanted, viz., for "someone to work through their Uganda courses and show them what method to use each step of the way". The change to more practical experience was also

> a disaster because the schools could not cope any better... and even though extensive hours were assigned to school work in the classes, dreadful tensions developed between classroom teachers and Ugandan teachers.[2]

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1 Worth, interview.

2 Robertson, interview.

The trainees apparently did not seem to appreciate that the cooperating teachers had taken great trouble in reorganizing their classes to accommodate the practicum. Eventually, the teachers reacted very negatively to the whole field experience. Robertson's overall conclusion was that the trainees' previous teacher-training did not equip them to cope with the diversity of thought and material presented. "The breadth of the teacher education program was breath-taking to them; they never came to terms with it". Nevertheless, because the trainees learned many basic facts and ideas, the program gave the trainees, in Robertson's view, a "very rich elementary and junior high education". Moreover, the trainees gained the tremendous experience of living abroad, of a "whole wide world opened up to them", since they had lived up till then in villages.

Five EAO interviewees responded to the question of realism and workability. One believed the curriculum was realistic and workable for the type of group represented by the trainees, especially in the second year because of what the university had learned from 1964. Another considered the Project "very useful","successful", and could have been repeated. A third pointed out that the curriculum had to be heavily weighted in English, Mathematics, and other basic academic subjects, which proved to be unexpected and a disappointment to the university. The remaining two felt respectively that the Project was "an EAO experiment and a great failure", and that it was not one of the"greatest successes" of EAO.

A sole expression of Uganda's opinion of the realism of the curriculum was found in a letter sent to the Dean of Education by a

senior officer in the Inspectorate Division of the Ugandan Ministry of Education. The officer confirmed that the problems encountered in the program of study concerning concept development, inability to read texts with understanding, and the trainees' difficulty in thinking for themselves, were similarly met in the Ugandan teacher-training context. Because

> Both in their home backgrounds, in their primary schools, and ... in many of their training colleges, these girls are encouraged to adapt an essentially passive approach to learning[1]

a value of sending the trainees overseas would be to enable the passivity to be broken down faster. Thus, in his view, increased attention to oral work and discussions as suggested by the university was "very sound".

General Comments

Observations as to the overall satisfaction of the trainees to their curriculum varied considerably. Trainee A believed that all participants in her group "really enjoyed the program and got more than what they wanted". Likewise, according to Corlett, the trainees were "very satisfied with the program and adjusted very well." She felt that the trainees would have gained a great deal, though she expected them to have a problem of implementing ideas gained, especially those returning to primitive areas.

The personal comments of all first-group trainees contained in a final assessment form which EAO had the trainees complete, reflected

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[1] H.W.R. Hawes, letter to H.T. Coutts, January 7, 1965, The University of Alberta Archives, File Accession No.: 70-10-31.

uniformly effusive views of satisfaction with the course. However, at the same time, almost all the trainees expressed a keen desire to stay longer, as seen from the following comments:

> I am grateful for this advantageous course. How I wish it was a little longer than this ...
> I finally think if this course is extended, it would help us a lot more ...
> No doubt, should I stay again for the same length of time or more, I will become one of the best elementary teachers in Uganda ..
> Should I have a chance of staying for more than seven months, I would really be a new wonderful teacher ...

One university respondent, on the other hand, never felt that the trainees were saying anything good about their program. Similarly, in Robertson's opinion, the trainees were "never satisfied from the first and they went home dissatisfied". As stated earlier, this was attributed by Robertson to the inability of the university to give the "manipulative, practical approach" which the trainees wanted.

Both trainees A and B also expressed favourable comments of the Vermilion College Community Education course. The visits to a Hutterite colony and an Indian reservation were cited as highlights of the course. Trainee A felt there was more of a group feeling at Vermilion since the trainees were together all the time, whereas at the university, trainees studied individually immediately after the end of lectures. The evaluation questionnaire completed by the trainees at the end of the course itself (Hynam, 1966) confirmed an overall satisfaction among a majority of the

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[1] Trainees' personal comments on progress, 1965 Annual Scholarship Report, The University of Alberta, to Training Programme Section, External Aid Office, The University of Alberta Archives, File Accession No.:70-10-31.

trainees. Out of seventeen trainees who gave global assessments, only four expressed definitely unfavourable opinions.

FINANCE

Contribution of Organizational Intermediaries

Financial records of the Project are incomplete, so that some of the figures shown here are only rough estimates. The roles of Uganda, The University of Alberta,and the EAO are easily spelled out. Practically all the costs were borne by EAO. Uganda's share was minimal, while the university's contribution appeared to be officially nil. According to trainee B, those trainees living outside Kampala received reimbursement for travel to, and residence in the capital just prior to departure. Most of the trainees evidently had their teaching salaries suspended during their absence from Uganda, since it was the policy of the Ugandan Central Scholarships Committee not to pay dependents' allowances for trainees' relatives rather than their own children.

EAO bore the costs of the return air journey between Uganda and Canada, the monthly stipend which covered food, lodging, and personal expenses, all instructional fees, a book and clothing allowance, shipping of return luggage, and certain medical and hospital fees incurred. No record of the latter is available, though it was probably minimal owing to the general good health of the trainees. Shipping expenses ran as high as $300 per trainee, but the total costs on this item are not known.

Project Costs for 1964-65 and 1965-66

Tables 3 and 4 list the documented costs for the first and second years of the Project. In the absence of any systematic financial records,

Table 3

1964-1965 Project Expenditure

Items	Cost for 15 Trainees
(1) Winter session tuition fees @ $300.00	$ 4,500.00
(2) General fees @ $34.50	517.50
(3) Balance of basic cost[a] @ $1,350.00	20,250.00
(4) Monthly stipend @ $200.00[b] (September - April)	23,600.00
(5) Book Allowance @ $100.00	1,500.00
(6) Clothing allowance @$200.00	3,000.00
(7) Uganda-Canada return airflight @ $1,200.00	18,000.00
TOTAL	$ 71,367.50

[a] This sum equals that paid by the Alberta Department of Education and the Federal Department of Labour to The University of Alberta for training Canadian vocational and vocational guidance students.

[b] One of the trainees returned home some time in February, three months before the program ended; the total here is therefore approximate.

Sources:

Items (1)-(3): H.T. Coutts, letter to M.A. Rousell, October 26, 1964, Files of the Office of the Comptroller, The University of Alberta.

Item (4): Director-General, EAO, official letter of offer of training to J. Dronyi, September 1, 1965, External Aid Office File: 9F-D-36.

Item (5) and (6): Handbook for Scholars and Fellows:23. External Aid Office, Ottawa, Canada. 1964.

Item (7): R.E. Byron, memorandum to H.O.Moran, March 26, 1965, Files of the External Aid Office.

Table 4

1965-1966 Project Expenditures

Item	Cost for 30 Trainees
(1) Winter session tuition[a] fees @ $1,000.00	$ 28,839.58
(2) Monthly stipend @ $200.00[b] (September-July)	57,600.00
(3) Book allowance @ $100.00	3,000.00
(4) Clothing allowance @ $200.00	6,000.00
(5) Uganda-Canada return airflight @ $1,200.00	36,000.00
(6) Vermilion Community Education Course	4,175.00
TOTAL	$ 135,614.58

[a] This was a flat rate covering "general" and "balance of basic cost" fees. Two trainees returned in February, 1965, accounting for the total being less than $30,000.00.

[b] The early return of two trainees makes the total given only approximate.

Sources:

Item (1): Compiled by L.R. Gue from files of the External Aid Office.

Item (2): Director-General, EAO, official letter of offer of training to J. Dronyi, September 1, 1965, External Aid Office File: 9F-D-36.

Items (3) and (4): Handbook for Scholars and Fellows. External Aid Office, Ottawa, Canada. 1964:23.

Item (5): R. E. Byron, memorandum to H. O. Moran, March 26, 1965, Files of the External Aid Office.

Item (6): G. E. Eyford, letter to W.H. Worth, January 19, 1966, University of Alberta Archives, File Accession No. 70-10-32.

some of the figures given are only approximate estimates. The sources were ecletic, including such records as invoices sent by The University of Alberta to EAO, planned budgets for various program components, memoranda from the Department of Elementary Education to the Office of the Comptroller, The University of Alberta, and the Handbook for Scholars and Fellows (External Aid Office, 1964) specifying standard allowances for sponsored students in Canada at the time of the Project.

Categorical Breakdown of Costs

In sum, the total cost of the Uganda Project from 1964-1966, excluding medical expenses and freight charges for shipping of luggage, was about $207,000. If shipment costs are conservatively estimated as an average of $100-$200 per trainee, the total expenditure of the Project is hence at least (excluding medical expenses) $210,000. The average cost per trainee in 1964-65 and 1965-66 were respectively about $4,900 and $4,670, while over the two years, the minimal average cost would be about $4,750 per trainee.

Instructional costs, including tuition, materials and transportation for staff and students, added up to approximately $58,000 or 26% of the estimated total. Major travel expenditures were $54,000 (25%)[1], while personal maintenance expenses incurred about $94,700 (45%). Miscellaneous costs and shipping bills may be estimated to be not less than 4% of the total costs. Of the instructional costs, part-time lecturers

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[1] The travel costs of two university professors who visited Uganda in 1966 on an EAO-commissioned feasibility study in relation to the Project's future, are unknown and not included here.

or tutors were paid at least $4,000 over the two years of the Project.

General Comments

When asked if the Project costs were reasonable in view of its goals, one EAO respondent labelled the tuition fees "unreasonable", and stated that the Project was one of the first aid projects where EAO violated its policy of paying only the regular university fees. The university contended, however, that the costs were reasonable since "very special arrangements" were made for the trainees. Moreover, the costs were based on similar assessments for vocational guidance students at The University of Alberta under arrangements with the Alberta Department of Education and the Federal Department of Labour. One other EAO respondent pointed out that though the absolute costs of the Project was expensive, the increase in tuition fees for special projects after 1966 made the Ugandan fees "a good bargain".

Two respondents commented on the level of financial support. Robertson noted the "generous" attitude of EAO towards the trainees who were given lump sums of money for clothing and books. In addition, the university never lacked money to engage cooperating teachers or to transport trainees for educational experiences. On the other hand, Worth maintained that the funds allotted were inadequate for meeting the university's institutional costs. Trainee A considered the maintenance allowance to be "just enough", since half had to be spent on food and lodgings, leaving the rest for clothing and books.

PHYSICAL PLANT

Buildings Used

It is not clear where trainees were housed by Ministry of Education officials, if at all, prior to their departure from Uganda. Trainee A, though she was from outside Kampala, recalled that pre-departure accommodation was left to her own arrangements. The experiences of other trainees who came from other regions are not known. On the way to Canada, the first-group trainees stopped-over in London, where they stayed in a hotel. The second-group trainees flew direct to Canada. In Ottawa, both groups were housed in the Chateau Laurier prior to departure for Edmonton. As stated earlier, the trainees were immediately taken to university residences on their arrival: Pembina Hall in the first year, and Pembina Hall, Lister Hall,and St. Jude's residence in the second year.

During the Vermilion College Community Education course, the second-group trainees were housed in the college dormitories. There is only partial information on the buildings used during the return journey. Both groups stopped at Ottawa, with the second-group trainees staying in a guest-house. En route to Uganda, some trainees stopped-over in London, though at their own expense and arrangements.

Instructional Facilities

The buildings of the Faculty of Education at the university were used for the on-campus curriculum. Trainee B recalled that the instructors used to come to teach the trainees who remained in a specific classroom most of the time. University respondents stated

that the trainees had access to all the facilities as would any other regular student on campus, such as audio-visual aids, technical services, the Department of Extension, science laboratories, and language laboratories. During the teaching practicum, three Edmonton elementary schools participated in 1964, and four in 1965.

Adequacy of Physical Plant

Trainees A and B, as well as university personnel, indicated that the trainees responded favourably to the instructional facilities made available to them. Coutts pointed to the breadth of facilities and the audio-visual set-up as evidence of the adequacy of instructional facilities at the university. Robertson, however, felt that classrooms posed some problems, the university being unable to provide building space for special workshop rooms that would be suitable for the curriculum needed. With regard to the residential facilities, Munz argued that there should have been provision within the residences for trainees to cook their own style of food if they became tired of the Canadian diet. In view of the fact that food was indeed a rather significant non-academic problem for the trainees, such provision would have yielded beneficial results.

UNIVERSITY-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

Relations with Off-Campus Community

Among the earliest members of the Edmonton community to establish relations with the first-group trainees were the wives of several faculty members of the university. These ladies accompanied the trainees

on shopping expeditions and assisted them in buying such items as winter clothing. It was later found out, however, at an end-of-program session in March, 1965, that the trainees, while appreciating the good intentions of the faculty wives in helping them, would have preferred to shop by themselves.

The major organization off-campus which developed considerable contact with the trainees was the Zonta Club in Edmonton -- a women's social group. Corlett, as Chairman of the club's International Relations Committee, noticed the arrival of the first group, and promptly suggested to Sparling that club members play "big sisters" to the trainees. Sparling's recommendation was that as the trainees were facing registration procedures and adjusting to the study program, contact should be postponed until the new year. Thus the Zontans became involved with first-group trainees only at a Christmas gathering in 1964. With the second group, however, relations were established immediately on arrival, Zontans being among the reception party at the airport. Social activities organized by the club for the trainees included Christmas, Easter, and Valentine parties, sight-seeing trips, home visits and weekend stays. Usually two Zontans entertained two trainees at a time. Most of the trainees apparently visited their Zontan hosts every Sunday, and some even two or three times a week. In Corlett's view, this international relations project of the club was very successful, since it gave the Zontans involved an opportunity to appreciate another culture.

Another off-campus organization that met first-group trainees

was the Edmonton Exchange Teachers' Club whose members had all previously served on exchange programs overseas. At an informal evening, one member showed slides of his two years experience in Sierre Leone. Robertson noted that even though the activities were ostensibly social, there was "an educational component down underneath that everyone was striving for". For example, exchange teachers were very keen in asking the trainees if they could contribute to the Ugandan educational system by gathering textbooks and sending them over.

University-community relationships also extended outside the Province of Alberta. Soon after their arrival, first-group trainees were invited by the East African Students Union in Canada (Prairie Provinces) to participate in a celebration of Uganda's second independence on October 9, 1964. Six of the trainees thus spent Thanksgiving weekend in Saskatoon, Province of Saskatchewan, where the celebration was held. In early 1965, one trainee was also selected to go to Winnipeg, Manitoba, at the invitation of the Winnipeg Women's branch of The Canadian Institute of International Affairs. The trainee was to address the club on a topic related to "women in an emerging society".

During the Community Education course for the second-group trainees, there was considerable contact between trainees and the community at and around Vermilion. Thus before the course commenced, the trainees were officially welcomed by Vermilion community leaders such as the Mayor, the President of the Chamber of Commerce, and the Member of the Provincial Legislative Assembly for the area. Social activities to which trainees were invited included a barbeque organized by the Rotary Club, a sight-seeing trip arranged by members of the

Chamber of Commerce, and a social gathering at the neighbouring community of Manville. The trainees were also invited to sing on television at Llyodminster. In addition, the course itself included field trips to the Saddle Lake Indian reservation, the Hutterite community at Minburn, the Vermilion School for the Retarded, and Blue Quills Indian Residential School. Finally, at the end of the course, the trainees were given the opportunity to show the Vermilion community Ugandan styles of clothing, wearing dresses made by themselves during the course.

Relations with On-Campus Community

Throughout the two years of the Project, a committee of the Phi Delta Kappa chapter on The University of Alberta extensively involved itself with the trainees outside their academic study program. The five-man committee had selected Target 4 -- "Promote International Relations in Education" -- from the eight Phi Delta Kappa "Targets for the Mid-Sixties" projects, and set itself the task of observing "culture shock" among the trainees (Regan, 1966).[1] In the 1964-65 year, trainees in groups of about three were invited to the homes of the committee members. The visits were designed, however, to be of primary value to the trainees themselves (e.g. planning each session to ensure that the trainees obtained maximum information on any topics desired; creating an open atmosphere for trainees to probe Canadian customs), and secondarily to provide data on cultural differences and points at which cross-cultural contact causes overt annoyance. In 1965-66, instead of

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[1] The results of the study are discussed in the next chapter under Communication.

a rotation pattern of visits, permanent groups of trainees were assigned to specific committee members. Again, the social visits were combined with "culture shock" observations.

Other campus groups affording social opportunities for trainees were the Wuanita Society, which organized coffee parties, the Varsity Christian Fellowship, whose annual International Christmas gathering at the snow resort of Banff was attended by trainees in both years, and the International Students Club which invited trainees to present Ugandan songs and dances at variety shows. The Students Union of the university also assisted the second-group trainees in organizing a variety programme to celebrate Ugandan Independence Day; the trainees, in turn, contributed Ugandan items at celebrations of Pakistan's and India's independence organized by foreign students from those countries. Last, but not least, were the dormitory groups in the residences which regularly held floor parties and other social functions.

Adequacy of Provision for Social Needs

When asked if provision for the social needs of trainees was adequate, both trainees A and B expressed favourable opinions. B pointed out that academic homework allowed only a certain amount of time for such activities anyway. One EAO respondent who considered provision of social needs an important part of the Project, was impressed by university efforts to involve the Edmonton community in meeting these needs. Another EAO official lauded the sacrifice of time and effort the university had put into such provision. He labelled the reception in

Edmonton as "good", although some trainees apparently felt they were not well received.

More qualified opinions include that of Coutts, who admitted there was a lack of opportunities for heterosexual relationships, and Worth, who felt that while the novelty of the first-group had sparked community interest, such interest waned in the second year. According to Regan, the trainees should have had more "life" experience in Canadian homes: "a lot more could have been done, the Phi Delta Kappa project being only a rescue operation". In the case of first-group trainees, Robertson recounted an attempt by the university to give the trainees an opportunity to see various places across Canada by rail on their return journey to Ottawa. The idea aborted because no appropriate receiving groups could be found to see the trainees around. Nonetheless, the trainees had the experience of travelling across Canada in a train.

Munz raised the issue of providing joint scholarships so as to allow the spouses of married trainees to be with them during the overseas study. She considered such joint external experience important from the viewpoint of "personal and national development". Finally one university respondent recalled that despite the many host and social opportunities provided, some trainees were quite "unappreciative" and "totally oblivious to the favours they were getting", attributing this probably to the fact that the trainees had "nothing to judge by".

CONTINUATION OF THE PROJECT IN 1965

The first year of the Project ended officially on April 30, 1965. It was not until September that the second group arrived.

Consideration of the continuance of the Project by university personnel for a second year took place, however, as early as November, 1964. At an appraisal meeting of the first-group trainees' progress, Coutts urged Project staff to consider carefully the feasibility of continuing in 1965. He argued that since foreign students require more attention, the burden should not be left to rest on a few staff members only. Moreover, any agreement to continue should be contingent upon the privilege of follow-up work in Uganda, as well as some measure of participation in the selection of students.

On February 11,1965, Byron informed Coutts that though the current submissions for aid to Uganda did not include primary teacher training, EAO had asked Ugandan authorities if they wished to send a second group of trainees. The need to make a decision by March so as to facilitate university planning was impressed upon Uganda. A parallel communication from Byron to the Dar-es-Salaam mission suggested that

> it would be unrealistic to attempt to supply teachers through training programs of this nature. It follows that the maximum benefit from this program would be obtained if these teachers upon return have an opportunity to function in the capacity of lead teachers, supervisors of practice teaching, or teacher-training.[1]

Byron also told Coutts that participation of the university in candidate selection was doubtful, since Uganda had submitted over four hundred applications for training in 1965. The problem of selecting candidates from among such a large group for training in the entire spectrum of economic and social development would, in Byron's view, require "broad planning".

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[1] R. E. Byron, letter to H.T. Coutts, February 11, 1965, The University of Alberta Archives, File Accession No.:70-10-31.

In March, 1965, the Dar-es-Salaam mission informed EAO that the Ugandan Minister of Education had requested the sending of thirty trainees to Canada in September, and asked if the university would agree to the proposal. In addition, any visit of university representatives to participate in selection should be confirmed immediately as it had to be cleared with Ugandan authorities. Documents showed a certain amount of hesitation at the EAO upon receipt of the Ugandan request. One administrator wrote down the following memo:

> What will this cost? We cannot justify $1600 per capita which I understood you to say was the amount we are charged. This is disproportionately high for this type of training. It would be more economical and more practical to help set up facilities in Uganda.[1]

Another EAO official likewise considered the training costs "very high". Though he felt a second group should be permitted to come, EAO should make clear in his view that it would be the final group, since EAO's long-term thinking should be to create facilities in Uganda for primary teacher training". Byron, as Director of Technical Assistance, pointed out that the high tuition fees were due to the fact that non-degree students may not be claimed as students on provincial and federal university grants. Some savings might accrue though from an optimum size of thirty trainees, and an early arrival so as to allow the university to schedule the group into regular courses. Byron's reasons for continuing the Project included the following: while it was

> a very expensive program and the returns scarcely comparable with the returns which might be expected from assistance on a similar

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[1] A hand-written note on the telegram from the Office of the High Commissioner for Canada, Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania to the External Aid Office, March, 1964, External Aid Office File No.:9F-1, Canadian International Development Agency.

> scale directed toward the establishment of a teacher training college in Uganda ... it could be regarded as a useful stop-gap and could alleviate to some extent the disappointment of the Ugandan authorities that we will be unable to accept no more than a handful of the 300 candidates for degree programs by Uganda ... The most important side-benefit of the program could be an acceptance on the part of The University of Alberta of substantial responsibility for the development of teacher training programs in Uganda and possibly in East Africa.[1]

Byron also recommended that though a trip by a university representative for the sole purpose of candidate selection could not be justified, the university should be encouraged to "assume broader responsibilities for educational development in Uganda". Thus two university representatives should be sent to Uganda on a mission with duties listed in a letter from Byron to The President of the university that included

> (1) selection of a second group of Uganda primary teachers
> (2) a study of Uganda teacher and teacher-training requirements and recommendations;
> (3) a study of current shortages of candidates for overseas scholarships and suggest remedies including the possible establishment of special pre-matriculation facilities in Canada or in Uganda.[2]

In response to Byron's case, a senior administrator insisted that EAO make clear to Uganda and the university that the second group would be the last group. Also, any university representatives sent to Uganda "go as agents of this office[EAO]and work within our frames of reference". On March 26, 1965, EAO formally confirmed the university's acceptance of another year's training. In his letter to Coutts, Byron emphasized the

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1 R. E. Byron, memorandum to H.O. Moran, March 17, 1965, External Aid Office Files, Canadian International Development Agency.

2 R. E. Byron, letter to W.H. Johns, March 30, 1965 Files of the Office of the Comptroller, The University of Alberta.

"departure from policy" of the Project which EAO thus treated as a pilot project reserved for Uganda. Moreover, the university staff should "take into consideration that there can be no assurance at this time that the Project will continue beyond a second course", since EAO believed the most productive course of action was to give aid for development of indigenous training institutions. The idea of a university survey team was also broached in the letter.

Between the time of the latter correspondence until the arrival of second-group trainees in September, only one further event of significance occurred. This was the inability of the proposed university survey team to visit Uganda in May or June as had been suggested by EAO. Instead the university proposed the alternative date of November 1965, which thus prevented participation of the university in selection of the trainees. On September 1, 1965, the thirty second-group trainees arrived in Edmonton to commence the 1965-66 year of the Project.

TERMINATION OF THE PROJECT

The chain of events which culminated in the decision to terminate the Project may be considered to begin with the publication of the report by Dadson and Flower (1965). This report contained the findings of an EAO commissioned educational survey of East Africa (Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania) in August-September, 1965, by the Dean and Director of Graduate Studies, Ontario College of Education, University of Toronto. In the case of Uganda, Dadson and Flower recommended two educational aid projects for EAO's consideration: (a) the establishment of a university preparatory school; (b) aid for farm schools. The priorities emphasized by Uganda, and

confirmed by the survey team, thus focused on secondary and vocational education. Likewise, in a 1965 policy speech, the Ugandan Minister of Education made no reference to The University of Alberta training program, nor did he place much emphasis on aid to primary education.

Both the Dadson-Flower Report and the Ugandan Minister's speech, evoked sharp reaction from the university. Writing to Byron on October 18, 1965, Coutts expressed disappointment at

> the omission of any mention of our efforts in helping to give further preparation to certain primary teachers from Uganda (since the university believed it had) ... developed a sound program for the Ugandan primary teachers ... shown a willingness to put strained resources at the service of our country and of Ugandan education ... (and) gone the second mile in welcoming them into our community and our homes.[1]

Coutts then recommended termination of the Project at the end of the 1965-66 year. In reply, Byron reassured the Dean that the future of the Project would be decided only after consultation with the university and Uganda. The Dadson-Flower survey was primarily to establish the priority of potential educational aid projects for East Africa; its report did not constitute final decisions on aid that would actually be given. Moreover, since the Province of Alberta was already committed to two other vocational aid projects in Sierre Leone and Nigeria, it could not entertain further vocational projects. EAO, agreeing with the university on the importance of primary education to the well-being of higher educational levels and the political, economic and social development of Uganda, thus remained hopeful that the Uganda

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[1] H.T. Coutts, letter to R.E. Byron, October 28, 1965, The University of Alberta Archives, File Accession No: 70-10-32.

Project would continue. Finally, Byron regretted the lack of mention of the university's contribution in the Ugandan Minister's speech, pointing out that

> disappointments of this nature are, however, not unusual in development assistance work and we[EAO]have learned to accept with some equanimity frustrations and oversights of this kind.[1]

The Canadian mission in Dar-es-Salaam was informed of EAO's stance in a communication dated November 15, 1965. In particular, EAO's Director-General stressed the "pilot" nature of the Project, and that its objective of qualifying the trainees as "lead teachers who would convey their new skills in teaching methods and the organization of instruction, should ultimately lead to the development of local training institutions in Uganda." In early January, 1966, Coutts informed EAO of certain guidelines which university Project staff had decided should govern any continuance of the Project. These included the following:

> (a) limiting the group size to thirty trainees;
> (b) the group should be "homogeneous with respect to previous education, training, experience, and subsequent placement;
> (c) before August 1, 1966, ten copies of each text and syllabus used by the trainees in their previous Ugandan teacher-training programs, as well as ten copies of texts used in primary schools to which trainees would return, would be made available to the university.
> (d) two university staff members permitted to visit Uganda in the summer of 1966 for a follow-up evaluation of the 1964-65 and 1965-66 trainees, and to assist in the selection and orientation of the next group;
> (e) the trainees should reach the university by September, 1, for a two-week orientation program before term starts;
> (f) the trainees should receive more rigorous medical examinations before leaving Uganda;

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[1] R. E. Byron, letter to H.T. Coutts, September 4, 1965 External Aid Office Files, Canadian International Development Agency.

(g) arrangements should be made for representatives of the EAO, the Uganda Government, and The University of Alberta to meet for discussions on the Project;
(h) written confirmation by EAO on the above guidelines by February 1, 1966.[1]

Whether or not EAO made such confirmation is not known from the available evidence. It was not until March, however, that the Ugandan Ministry of Education responded to the question of continuance. In its letter to the Dar-es-Salaam mission, the Ministry stated that several of the second-group trainees were

> rather unhappy about the way in which they were coping with their course in infant methods at The Universtiy of Alberta, their main complaint being expected to learn too much in too short a time.[2]

More specifically, the trainees complained that much of their first academic term was spent in getting acclimatized to Canada; yet, they had to keep pace with the "extensive" training program. According to the Ministry, the first-group trainees had experienced similar difficulties even though they thought highly of the tuition and facilities made available. Citing the case of a similar project sponsored by Australia in 1963, where such problems caused an originally scheduled one-year program to lengthen to two years, the Ministry thus requested Canada for an extension of the 1965-1966 program until 1967. The letter continued as follows:

> ... If the Government of Canada were agreeable to this suggestion, we should be willing to forego sending a group of primary teachers

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1 H.T. Coutts, letter to R.E. Byron and H. Christie, March 1 1966, External Aid Office Files, Canadian International Development Agency.

2 J.M.B. Lwabi, letter to The High Commisioner for Canada, Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania, March, 1966, External Aid Office Files, Canadian International Development Agency.

> to your country, for training in infant methods during the 1966-67 academic year. We feel it a small sacrifice to make since it would be of greater advantage to Uganda if we were to have 28 teachers who were confident that they were making a real contribution to the teaching of our country's primary school-children, having devoted two years taking full advantage of the special training program organized for them, than to have nearly 60 primary teachers who might be possibly less efficient owing to their having had insufficient time in which to absorb all the training skills ...[1]

Most of the second-group trainees themselves had also informed Robertson of their desire to stay on for another year. Only four out of the twenty-eight in the group preferred to rejoin their families immediately after the 1965-66 program ended. The initial response of EAO and Coutts, as Dean of Education, was apparently to agree to Uganda's request; the extension date suggested was January, 1967. In March, 1966, however, the Report of evaluation study of returned trainees in Uganda by Dean Coutts and Professor Reeves, indicated a contrary opinion among university Project staff:

> In discussions with the appropriate officials at the University of Alberta, it became apparent that the University was not prepared to keep the present group longer than the end of the current session which ends April 30, 1966. This decision is based on the conviction that it would not be educationally and professionaly profitable for the Faculty of Education to provide an extended program. What these young teachers need now is not more methods of teaching and other pedagogical studies but an extension of their academic education and this with some few exceptions at a level approximating the junior high school. The staff of the Alberta project believe that these young ladies would not profit from further professional studies until the academic base had been raised. It is obvious that the university cannot in all conscience begin offering academic work at the level needed (Coutts and Reeves, 1966:7).

Coutts and Reeves themselves concluded that a "continuation of the present project was not educationally and professionally defensible in relation to the costs involved and the outcomes being achieved". On

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[1] Ibid.

June 10, 1966, the second-group trainees ended their Vermilion College Community Education course. Soon after, they left Edmonton and stopped at Ottawa for a few days before returning to Uganda. The Project officially terminated at that juncture.

SUMMARY

This chapter has been a description of the Uganda Project in terms of events categorized by the six selected administrative task-areas, and three other essential phases: genesis, continuation for a second year, and termination of the Project. The description embodied both facts and opinions. Though the evidence was incomplete on a number of points, the events which occurred are strikingly consistent with those issues prevalent in aid-study programs and earlier recounted in the review of related literature. Thus, for example, the type of academic and non-academic problems encountered by the trainees, the necessity of holding an orientation program, the difficulties involved in designing a relevant and workable curriculum, and the differing views maintained by the Ugandan Government and the university regarding extensions of the study program for high-achieving trainees, are all readily understood in the light of contemporary knowledge about aid study programs. A detailed summary of the findings of this chapter will be presented in the concluding chapter of the thesis.

Chapter 6

AN ANALYSIS OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE PROCESS IN THE UGANDA PROJECT

INTRODUCTION

Though a substantial portion of the factual and opinionative aspects of the Uganda Project have already been described, additional information on a number of issues and events will be presented in this chapter. The sum total of all these facts and opinions, as well as the various concepts, issues and criteria raised in the review of related literature, constitute "raw material" for an analysis of the administrative process in the Project. Interpretation of the process according to the selected framework of six components focuses on the series of questions formulated in the earlier restatement of the research problem.

Before the discussion begins, a caveat must be introduced regarding the depth and scope of analysis and interpretation. In analyzing and interpreting the various components of the administrative process in the Project, statements will often be made as to what happened, or did not happen, and why some of these events should not have occurred, as well as why others should have taken place. The scope of the study, however, has not permitted a comprehensive treatment of the question of why certain administrative problems or deficiencies emerged as they did, though information in some cases has indirectly materialized from the available data.

There are, of course, as the earlier discussion has shown, "limits to rationality" in decision-making, a "politics of planning", role-conflicts in social and organizational behavior, and barriers affecting communicating. Or, as Eastcott, Holdaway, and Kuiken (1974) have systematically discussed, actual administrative behavior is invariably influenced by a variety of personal, intra-organizational and extra-organizational constraints which prevent or impede "administrative action from being in line with theoretical principles". In sum, although deficiencies in the administration of the Uganda Project are detected by comparison of the actual events with an "ideal" picture of what should have happened, it is acknowledged that there may have been cogent and valid underlying constraints unidentified by the available data that operated to bring about those deficiencies. Nevertheless, this caveat does not detract from the present depth of analysis in pointing out what "ideally" should have occurred.

PLANNING

Comprehensiveness

The initial step in any effective planning process is the identification of needs for which action is required (Kaufman, 1972:5). In submitting its proposal for the Project, the Ugandan Ministry of Education showed that it was relying on the Report of the 1963 Ugandan Education Commission as an identifier of the country's educational needs at that time. The Report had stressed a need to improve the quality of primary education, especially vis-a-vis the qualifications and approach of the teachers. Uganda's request for aid at the primary

school level with the goal of professional upgrading of primary teachers, was therefore consistent with an important educational need that had been recognized by a governmental commission.

Moreover, aid in the form of teacher-training for Uganda in 1964 satisfies more or less all the valid criteria for educational aid proposed by Cerych (1965:194). Thus teacher-training has not only high "multiplying effect", but also at the primary level, would contribute both to the quality of Uganda's educational system and to her social and economic development by reducing wastage and inefficiency. External aid in this sector was further justified by the lack of local teacher-trainers. Finally, Uganda appeared then to be a country with concern and capacity for educational development, as reflected in the activities of the deBunsen Committee in 1952, and the Ugandan Education Commission in 1963 (Williams,1966:65)

The specific type of aid requested and granted, however, does not appear to have been selected from a systematic consideration of various possible alternative means as required in effective planning (Ackoff, 1970:6). For example, apart from overseas training, the aid could have taken the form of Canadian teacher-trainers sent to Ugandan colleges for full-time service, or part-time as in the summer refresher courses of "Project Africa" initiated by the Canadian Teachers Federation (1964). A more complex project might have been the setting up of a teacher-training institution with Canadian funds, manned initially by Canadian personnel, and later by indigenous staff after appropriate training in Uganda or Canada. While it is true that Uganda did ask for Canadian

teacher-trainers, as well as the Project, there is no indication from the evidence available that EAO initiated any systematic search for an optimum means of meeting the fundamental goal underlying Uganda's aid request, viz., the improvement of primary teachers' qualifications. The important question of whether or not the Project would have sufficient "critical mass" and "impact" not to peter out (Phillips, 1973:61) was apparently not raised during planning.

Following specification and selection of ends and means, a comprehensive planning process would consider the issues of "resources", "implementation" and "control" (supra, p.15). No such consideration by EAO is shown by the available evidence. Thus there was a lack of identification of the resources, apart from finance, necessary for the well-being of the Project. The choice of The University of Alberta was not preceded by questions such as : does the university have the expertise to train Ugandan primary teachers for the Ugandan educational system?; what additional resources (e.g. textbooks and syllabi of Ugandan curricula) would assist university training personnel?

There was also no planning of implementation procedures by EAO authorities. University staff were left to design the Project as they saw fit, unless a major policy was in question (e.g. requests for extension of training; resolving the pregnancy problem). This lack of planning in the sphere of implementation can be deduced to be largely responsible for various coordination and communication problems among the organizational intermediaries during the Project.

An effective plan necessarily includes procedures of "control", so that errors and failures may be anticipated or detected and changes

made accordingly in project operation. No special procedures seem to have been instituted by EAO in this regard. The office's interviewing of trainees just prior to return appears, at first sight, to be a form of control. The responses of trainees A and B revealed, however, that the interviews were brief, informal discussions. Moreover, no recommendations formally originated from such pre-return interviews of first-group trainees that could have contributed to an improvement of the 1965 program.

The degree of comprehensiveness of the planning which culminated in the arrival of the first group in Canada was thus low. In addition, the trainees arrived just prior to the beginning of the academic term, so that planning for the first-year study program itself was "ad hoc" and "crisis", to use the terms of one university administrator. The earlier description of events related to the continuation of the Project in 1965, and its termination in 1966, show that the university attempted to improve the planning process for the second year program, and thereafter. Thus, as early as November, 1964, university personnel were already considering, and laying down conditions for the possible continuance of the Project in 1965. Similarly, by early January 1965, the university had formulated clear guidelines governing any Project extension beyond the 1965-66 program.

Planning Roles of Organizational Intermediaries

The four major organizational intermediaries in the operation of any aid-study program are typically the training institution in the donor

country, the latter's aid agency and its diplomatic mission to the recipient country, and the Ministry concerned in the recipient country. In this Project, they are respectively The University of Alberta, EAO, the Office of the High Commissioner for Canada resident in Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania, and the Ugandan Ministry of Education.

Documentary evidence on the exact planning role of the High Commission is conflicting. In communicating the Ugandan request to EAO, the High Commissioner stated he had told the Ugandan Minister of Education that he did not know if EAO gave assistance at the primary level, or the difficulties involved. He thus promised the Minister he would "inquire" of the EAO about the possibility of such aid, thereby implying he had not committed Canada to the Project. A somewhat contrary picture of events is revealed in a message from EAO's Director-General to the High Commission in November 1965:

> ... In 1964, we were asked to upgrade a group of primary teachers to secondary level. However, in as much as standard requirements for Canadian Faculties of Education approximate matriculation standards and the proposed group had academic standards which appear to average about Grade nine or ten, we informed mission that we had no program which would appear to meet the Ugandan requirement. However, it later appeared that the Mission gave the Ugandan authorities encouragement which was interpreted as a commitment, and when he subsequently visited Ottawa in the spring of 1964, the High Commissioner asked whether we could organize a special program for the group ... [1]

This view parallels the comments of one EAO respondent, who labelled the Project as a "diplomatic arrangement". According to him, the High Commissioner had "no right" to commit Canada to the Project; nonetheless,

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[1] Director-General, External Aid Office, letter to Office of the High Commissioner for Canada, Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania, November 15, 1965, External Aid Office File: 11-5W, Canadian International Development Agency.

to avoid the embarrassment of EAO having to cancel a diplomatic move, the Project was "sent down to staff level and pushed through".

As shown in the preceding section, the planning role of EAO was negligible; the office merely responded passively to the aid request except vis-a-vis the size of the training group. The major planning role was held by the Ugandan Ministry of Education, who identified the needs, goals, means, and even specific objectives of the curriculum. The University of Alberta had no involvement at all in the initial planning of the Project. Also, owing to the lateness of EAO's commission, there was really no time for the university to plan carefully for the first year study program. In 1965, the planning role of the university substantially increased. Given the importance accorded to planning by university personnel, there seems little doubt that the university's planning role would have further increased if the Project had continued.

In terms of the strategic-tactical classification (supra, p.16) it can be said that Uganda herself, possibly with encouragement from the Dar-es-Salaam mission, was responsible for the initial strategic planning which led to the initiation of the Project. The University of Alberta was primarily concerned with the tactical planning required for actual operation of the Project's academic study program. Towards the end of the Project, however, the university indicated a strong desire to be involved in strategic planning issues. In this regard, the EAO gave a fair measure of encouragement via its support of the Coutts-Reeves university survey team to Uganda in 1966. Philosophy-wise, though, EAO's overall attitude underlying the planning process appeared to be

"satisficing" rather than "optimizing". (supra, p.15)

ORGANIZING

Formal and Informal Roles

The earlier discussion under the task-area of staff personnel has delineated in detail the roles of administrative, instructional, support and informal staff associated with the Project. Four summative remarks are appropriate here. To begin with, it was seen that the Uganda government, via its Ministry of Education, and with the support of the Canadian mission in Dar-es-Salaam, took on the initial planning role as well as tasks of pre-departure organizing, including selection of trainees. The non-involvement of the university and EAO in such roles meant that only Ugandan criteria dictated these events. As it turned out, selection by Ugandan authorities appeared to have been neither uniform nor rigorous, except for the fact that a regionally representative group was chosen each time. Conceivably, if the university had participated in selection, trainees more qualified for the training program would have been chosen, while still meeting the "political" criterion of tribal representativeness. Moreover, if it had been involved in planning from the beginning, the university would have had sufficient time to design, and organize more effectively, the study program.

Secondly, the evidence shows that the role of training programme officer at EAO was relatively marginal vis-a-vis the study program itself. The major direct contact of the officer with trainees occurred when they first arrived in Canada, and just prior to returning home.

During the 1964-65 program, two trainees wrote to the officer enquiring about return travelling arrangements. In the second year, the officer received letters from two trainees -- the first on behalf of second-group trainees informing him of their addresses and bank account numbers; the other concerning a change of room at the residence. No visit was paid by the officer to the university during the two years of the Project. Because the EAO is a specialized agency for aid programs, it can be argued that the training officer's role should have had closer identification with the study program at the training institution. A more intimate knowledge of trainees' problems, for example, on the part of the officer should assist in the making of sounder administrative decisions at EAO.

During the Project's operation on campus, Robertson's role was the most central among all the formal roles involved. She was responsible for the day-to-day organizing of administrative, instructional, support and informal resources. Thus she held discussions with various faculty members before the program started to see who were prepared to teach the trainees. Instructors would refer trainees' problems, or trainees with problems to her attention; likewise the Dean of Women and residential administrative staff always informed her of personal difficulties among the trainees when such came to their knowledge. In sum, Robertson was the primary administrator who was well acquainted with both the academic and personal progress of each trainee. She was also in close contact with the informal resources (e.g. host families; community groups) who provided social experiences for the trainees. Finally, her duties also included

writing the terminal report of each year's study program. Though Robertson's role was not given an official title, its centrality, and the leadership it gave to the operation of the Project, cannot be doubted. This Project therefore illustrates the value and importance of a role such as that played by Robertson, to the effectiveness and efficiency of an aid study program.

The roles of various community and campus groups in providing for the social experiences of the trainees while in Canada have already been described in earlier sections. That of the Zonta Club ladies stands out in particular as an illustration of the way in which the "informal organization" can assist the "formal" operation. It was seen that though the regular university counselling services were available to the trainees, they did not consult them on their own initiative. The major counselling role, in fact, fell to the responsibility of the Zontans. During home visits, trainees readily spoke about problems or difficulties related to personal and academic adjustment to their Zontan hosts. The latter were therefore able to provide to formal administrative staff valuable feedback on how the trainees were reacting to the program, and the areas of difficulty that required corrective action or changes in the study program. In 1964, the Dean of Women made the decision not to involve the trainees with the Zontans until they had overcome the initial problems of adjustment. In retrospect, it can be argued that the establishment of Zontan-trainee relationships immediately after the trainees' arrival (which occurred in 1965), when adjustment difficulties were probably the most acute, would have done more good than harm.

Conflict within the Project's Social System

Conflicts within a social system, while not inevitably "evil", "may be seen as symptomatic of the need for integrative alterations and reorganizations in the system" (Getzels, Lipham and Campbell, 1968:119). An awareness of the administrator to sources of conflict can thus afford clues to areas of dislocation within the system and their rectification. Looking back on the Project, it is clear that several conflicts emerged between organizational intermediaries and participant personnel during the Project's implementation and operation. These conflicts may be classified in terms of the parties involved, viz. EAO and the Dar-es-Salaam mission; EAO and the university; trainees and their instructors; the university and Uganda.

As already recounted, the major source of dissension between the EAO and the Canadian High Commission in Dar-es-Salaam was the latter's apparent commitment to Uganda about the Project, despite EAO's opinion that Canada did not have available a program meeting Uganda's requirements. Once such commitment was made, diplomatic considerations were allowed to override the professional judgement of aid agency personnel. In other words, the Project might never have materialized had not diplomacy been involved. This particular conflict clearly demonstrates a logical need for careful definition and delineation of the role of overseas missions vis-a-vis commitment to aid projects on behalf of their country.

EAO-university relationships were also affected by a number of conflicts over the planning and organizing of the Project. One has already been mentioned, viz., over the issue of candidate selection. The

university had insisted that faculty representatives visit Uganda to participate in selection of trainees for the 1965-66 and future programs. EAO's initial response was negative, arguing that Uganda had submitted a large number of candidates for training in many fields -- this required broad planning (presumably instead of the limited scope of a University of Alberta team which focuses only on a single project). Later, when EAO agreed to a faculty visit, the office still emphasized that a visit solely for candidate selection was not justified. The terms of reference of the Coutts-Reeves survey were thus broadened into an advisory, consultative and service role of determining Uganda's educational needs. One EAO respondent even viewed the university's desire for participation in selection as "a free trip at the expense of EAO". In retrospect, considering the difficulties encountered because of lack of prior information about the Uganda system, the sending of faculty who could gain first-hand knowledge of trainees' educational backgrounds, would clearly have contributed significantly to the effectiveness of the Project.

Another conflict between EAO and the university occurred over the costs of the Project, with EAO considering them to be "unjustly" high. The university, however, felt they were reasonable since neither the provincial nor the federal governments gave grants for non-degree students. A university respondent considered EAO's attitude that "the universities ought to, as a kind of humanitarian service, bear a large share of the costs of education from the emerging countries", to be "slightly unfair", since the universities were already bearing the costs of foreign graduate students. The university was also unhappy with EAO's attitude towards

planning, especially in regard to the early formulation of definite plans. Thus, by February, 1965, university administrators were already urging EAO to make a firm decision on whether or not the Project should continue for the second year, so that the university could arrange for necessary staffing.

Conflicting viewpoints were held by EAO and the university over two issues in the area of student personnel. The first occurred at the end of the first year. Arguing that the trainees would benefit from travelling within Canada, the university made a request to EAO that the trainees return to Ottawa by train. EAO, on the other hand, preferred what it considered to be the most effective and efficient means, viz., flying. In the words of one university respondent, EAO would "not in any way capitalize on the needs and the ability of the girls to learn from travelling". The university insisted, however, and at its own initiative, booked the trainees on the trans-Canada railway. Surprisingly, no such conflict appeared to have arisen in 1966, and the second-group trainees left Edmonton by plane. Secondly, the EAO and the university did not share the same views on extension for further studies by a few trainees. One EAO respondent stated that the office was "distressed" at the encouragement given by the university to these trainees to stay for a "better deal", and cited the "over-identification" of some professors with the trainees as the cause. Nonetheless, EAO did make an extension request to Uganda on behalf of the university for two second-group trainees.

Both the instructors and the trainees experienced mutual role-conflict owing to differing expectations of their respective roles, as the earlier discussion has shown. The trainees expected to be taught

in the "what and how-to-do-it" approach which they had received in Ugandan educational institutions. The instructors, on the other hand, felt the trainees ought to start thinking for themselves about the ways by which they could apply the knowledge learned in Canada to their home situations. According to Robertson, this role conflict caused considerable dissatisfaction among the trainees. For some staff members, adjusting to reduce the conflict proved to be a traumatic experience. It is unrealistic, of course, to expect a complete solution to such conflict, since the educational background of foreign students is a reflection of the state of the educational system in their countries. Nevertheless, instructional staff can, indeed should, be prepared for such expectations on the part of trainees, and modify their approach accordingly. Common sense suggests that a gradual transition from a "rote" approach in the early stages to a "student-active" teaching-learning process , would likely engender less conflict than if trainees were expected to learn on their own initiative straightaway.

Finally, there were four areas of conflict between the Ugandan authorities and the university. The first, mentioned in preceding sections, was Uganda's refusal to grant permission for further studies to the second-group Asian Ugandan trainees who had been strongly recommended by the university. Secondly, Uganda was unhappy over the Community Education course arranged by the university in 1966, since the trainees were then unable to return home as early as the government would have liked. A third area of dissension occurred towards the end of the 1965-66 program, when Uganda argued that second-group trainees were not given enough time to absorb the material taught, and thus requested an extension of the program by another year. As earlier described, the

university decided against any extension owing to the low academic base of the trainees.

The fourth source of Uganda-university conflict stemmed from the initial refusal of the Ugandan government to grant returned trainees equal status to that afforded trainees who had been to Australia and the United Kingdom on similar though slightly longer (two-year) programs. The latter were given a reclassification of their teaching grade (e.g. from Grade II to Grade III) and the higher salary raises accompanying such promotion, privileges initially denied to Alberta trainees. University personnel first heard of the matter through informal correspondence with a few returned first-group trainees. It was later confirmed by Coutts and Reeves during their evaluation visit to Uganda in March, 1966. Coutts and Reeves (1966:5) discussed the issue as follows:

> ... We could not help but get the impression that the programs offered by the teachers training colleges which the groups in Australia, Scotland, Ireland, and England had attended, seemed to Ugandan authorities to be closer to the realities of their own situation than was the Alberta program. They were not prepared, however, to criticize the Alberta program but felt less secure in interpreting its purpose and content.

Not long after the Coutts-Reeves visit, the controversy was resolved when the Ugandan Ministry of Education itself organized a six-week inservice course for returned Alberta trainees. Those who attended the course were then awarded the promotion initially denied them. There is no information available, however, on the nature of the course given, or how many returned trainees participated.

Effectiveness

Effectiveness as defined by the Getzels-Guba social behavior

model, is the concordance of role-behavior and role-expectations in the social system concerned (Getzels, Lipham and Campbell, 1968:129). In an aid-study program, the fit between actual behavior and role-expectations of the students or trainees provides a fundamental yardstick of program or project effectiveness. Role-expectations should also be distinguished as short-term and long-term. For the Uganda Project, the short-term expectations of the trainees could be reasonably considered to be that they successfully acquire the knowledge comprising the given curriculum, viz., their professional qualifications as teachers increased. In the long-term, however, the determinant of effectiveness would have to be whether or not the trainees on return, actually applied the knowledge and skills acquired from the study program.

Some of the evidence for short-term expectations have already been presented in the discussion on trainees' achievement. Though some trainees were very weak academically, and both groups faced a number of common academic problems, achievement was felt to be generally satisfactory. Some confirmation that the trainees had indeed achieved meaningful learning comes from the report of Coutts and Reeves (1966:4). From their discussions with four returned first-group trainees, observations of three of these in their classrooms, and talks with their school principals, Coutts and Reeves concluded that

> ... these teachers are all better performers in the classroom as a result of their year of teacher education at The University of Alberta, their classrooms reflect the practicum they had had in Edmonton schools, and they had developed considerable poise and assurance. All of this was verified by the principals with whom we talked.

Though these observations referred to only four of the fourteen returned first-group trainees, it would not seem unreasonable to expect

them to apply to the others as well. Evidence on second-group trainees is lacking apart from the responses of trainees A and B. Both reacted favourably to the training received; B specifically cited reading as one subject which had been very successful in home situations. Thus, if the short-term expectations are simply taken as the increase in the professional competence of the trainees in infant teaching, then the Project may be considered to have achieved a reasonable degree of effectiveness.

Both the university and EAO, however, appeared to have expected more than just an increase in professional competence. EAO had specifically suggested to the Dar-es-Salaam mission that maximum benefit would accrue from the Project if the trainees on return had the opportunity to function as "lead teachers, supervisors of practice teaching, or teacher-trainers" (supra, p.153) Such expectations were not fulfilled, as Coutts and Reeves (1966:5) discovered:

> ... it was apparent these young ladies had returned to schools and classrooms quite similar to these they had left when they came to Canada, that except for casual discussions with other members of staff, they had not been able to do much by way of leadership and in-service sharing of what they had experienced in Alberta. Nor did it appear to us that there were or would be any means of their doing so. We did not get the impression that these young ladies were consiered outstandingly better than many other teachers in the schools.

The experiences of trainee B, who was in the 1965-66 program, confirms this view in part. She passed on ideas learned in Canada only to some of her fellow teachers if they came to talk to her to observe her classroom teaching. Hence, as far as these five trainees are concerned, the effectiveness of the Project was low if short-term expectations also included formal leadership in teacher inservicing

or training. This generalization, however, cannot be validly extended unless the experiences of the thirty-nine other trainees, or a representative sample of them, are known.

Long-term expectations are logically that returned trainees continue to apply what they had learned in Canada. As interview respondents indicated in their comments on the type of long-range evaluation they would recommend, a follow-up should determine "how well the trainees have performed on returning home". (infra, p.200) Information on this crucial issue is restricted to a single soucre, namely trainee B, who had taught for six years in Uganda before returning to Canada. She stated that fellow trainees she happened to meet, and herself, had applied their Canadian-acquired knowledge for two or three years after returning home. However, they did not have a lot of encouragement from others, "people were slack", and "nobody appreciated all that they were doing". Consequently, they returned to their former (pre-Canadian training) ways of teaching[1]. It would be unrealistic, of course, to extend the opinions of one trainee to cover the whole group of forty-five, and ultimately any overall judgement of the long-term effectiveness of the Project must depend on a more complete picture of the other trainees' experiences.

Efficiency

In the Getzels-Guba model, efficiency is defined as the concordance of role-behavior and need-dispositions. When needs and behavior are congruent, "the individual is doing what he wants to be

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[1] Trainee B, interview.

doing" (Getzels, Lipham and Campbell, 1968:129). His behavior may then be considered "efficient" in the sense there is a minimum of strain. However, when behavior conforms to role expectations, and needs and expectations are not congruent, the individual is not doing what he wants to be doing. The resultant strain is considered to cause "inefficient" behavior.

With respect to the trainees, their needs for "manipulative, practical" training were clearly not congruent with their instructors' expectations that they think out for themselves how the theory given might be applied. In Robertson's words, the trainees "were never satisfied from the first and they went home dissatisfied". Some inefficiency thus characterized trainees' behavior during the study program; to what extent this strain affected the short-term effectiveness of the Project in terms of an increase in the professional competence of trainees is, however, not known. Likewise, the important question concerning the efficiency of trainees after they have returned home, remains unresolved on the basis of the available evidence. The degree of such efficiency clearly has significant bearing on the long-term effectiveness of the Project.

Efficiency vis-a-vis the behavior of administrative personnel is deducible from the responses to question (11) under "Curriculum" in the interview schedule, viz.: "If you had the opportunity to plan a curriculum for this group again, how would you go about it?" Two of the university administrators most closely involved with the Project indicated they preferred not to plan a curriculum for such a group again. The reasons, mentioned previously, were given as the lack of knowledge

of trainees' educational background, and more importantly, their low academic base. In Coutts' opinion, "university resources are just too expensive to devote to teaching elementary school subjects". Robertson pointed out that the trainees were "at best, in their own country, a few years ahead of the children in primary grades", so that trying to give them university-level work was ridiculous. The alternative of putting rooms aside and creating the necessary setting would have meant, however, a situation which has little resemblance to a university. Worth, on the other hand, considered the Project a "good thing to have been associated with", even though its administration was difficult. In his opinion, the Project not only helped broaden the focus of staff in the Department of Elementary Education, but also gave the department, which was then in a developmental stage, stature within the university and outside Alberta.

Four EAO administrators responded to the question in negative terms, stating that the trainees should not have come over in the first place. To one administrator, the Project was an expensive device for Canada to use to train people with too low educational levels and far too rural backgrounds. Another considered the Project uneconomic and unrealistic in terms of Uganda's needs. The other two claimed that the Project had been started in motion by the Dar-es-Salaam mission much against the professional judgement of EAO officials. In sum, the efficiency of administrative personnel, both university and EAO, was not particularly high since they undertook a Project they preferred, either through foresight or hindsight, not to have taken on in the first place.

Additional contributing factors to a decrease in efficiency of university personnel were their largely unfulfilled needs of participating in such administrative processes as planning and selection, to be reorganized by the Ugandan government for their efforts, and to be considered as having given a program comparable to that sponsored by Australia and the United Kingdom.

Temporary System Structure

The administration of the Project at the university was basically a temporary system structure. Except at the beginning of the 1964-65 program, trainees were kept together as a special group taking courses in isolation from the regular university students. Most of the staff personnel, including the de facto administrator in charge of the Project, were specially recruited for short-term service on the Project. The temporary structure was disbanded with the termination of the Project.

Both the interview responses and the documentary evidence suggest that university personnel attached no particular importance to the "temporary system" nature of the Project's organization. The trainees were kept in a special group apparently only because they could not cope with the regular university classes. One administrator even labelled the isolation from the university's mainstream as "distasteful". Another "saw no reason why the trainees should not take advantage of everything the university had to offer". Whether or not the temporary system organized in the Project had any distinct utility compared to, say, simple enrolment of the trainees in regular university classes remains therefore an unresolved question.

Follow-through

The earlier discussion of literature on aid-study programs has suggested the importance of follow-through activities, whereby trainees maintain contact with, and receive moral or material support from their former instructors, hosts, and other official representatives of the host country. Hardly any such activities occurred in the Uganda Project. Some of the trainees did communicate by letter with Robertson, Sparling and their Zontan hosts for a while after returning home, but no formal follow-through was apparently undertaken either by EAO, the Dar-es-Salaam mission, or the university organization.

One document indicated, however, that Byron, as Director of Technical Assistance, had suggested to Coutts three months before the first-group trainees left Canada, that EAO would give favourable consideration to a reasonable proposal for a sum of money for purchasing instructional materials which the trainees would find useful to their work in Uganda. No further information is available on whether this follow-through suggestion was actualized. For the second-group trainees, the evidence is clear that no such provision occurred. In sum, there was no indication of any serious concern on the part of the various organizational intermediaries with follow-through activities. However, what follow-through that occurred, yielded valuable feedback to university personnel. Thus, it was via informal communication between Robertson and the trainees that the university knew about the unhappiness of the trainees over the issue of their reclassification of certification, and salary entitlements.

DECISION-MAKING

Decision-Roles of Organizational Intermediaries

Decision-making in the Project was not a process equally shared by the various organizational intermediaries, each being finally and unilaterally responsible for decisions on certain, specific issues. The Dar-es-Salaam mission appeared to have made only one significant decision namely that which, as the evidence suggests, represented a de facto commitment of Canada to the Project. Ugandan decisions determined the outcome of four main areas: the type of aid project required, with accompanying goals and objectives; the selection of trainees, the extensions requested for further study by the two Asian Ugandan second-group trainees, including their placement in schools, and the utilization of their Canadian-acquired skills.

EAO made decisions with respect to the final acceptance of the Ugandan request for the Project (though this appeared to be against its will), the choice of the Canadian university to serve as the training institution, the resolution of pregnancy problems among the trainees, the financing of the Project (though the training costs levels were set by the university), the sending of Coutts and Reeves to Uganda, the continuation of the Project for a second year, and the termination of the Project in 1966 on the basis of a recommendation from the university.

The University of Alberta was responsible for final decisions in the following major areas: agreeing to accept the Project; planning, organizing, and implementing the academic study program; the extra-curricular and social experiences of the trainees; setting the costs of

training. Via the Coutts-Reeves Report, the university recommended the termination of the Project in 1966.

This break-down of decision-roles of the organizational intermediaries clearly shows that the decisions made by the university and by Uganda were complementary. Thus Uganda set the goals and objectives of the study program, while the university prepared a training course that in its view would meet these goals and objectives. After returning home, however, the trainees' behavior as teachers fell once more under the decision-making jurisdiction of Uganda. Because the decisions were made by each organizational intermediary independently, there was therefore a greater probability of incongruence between the complementary decisions. On the other hand, if both Uganda and the university had jointly shared in the decision-making process on those issues, then there should have been less likelihood of one set of decisions nullifying that made by the other organization.

The decision-making role of EAO is seen to be quite passive, and relatively marginal in the whole operation of the Project. What actually happened (viz., EAO simply accepted the Project in the form requested by Uganda) was, in fact, contrary to the response of one EAO administrator that the curriculum for such projects springs from an overlap between what the recipient country wants and what EAO thinks is appropriate and reasonable. As it turned out, no such "overlap" occurred and EAO was apparently obliged to undertake an aid project it would have preferred to avoid. Clearly, a more active role of EAO in decision-making, especially in planning at the beginning, would have contributed to an improved performance of the program.

Quality of Decision-Making

One important factor contributing to the quality of decision-making is the adequacy of relevant information on which a decision is based (Iannaccone, 1964:229). It is seen that all the organizational intermediaries made various decisions for which the necessary information base was absent or incomplete. The Dar-es-Salaam mission thus apparently decided to commit Canada to the Project without knowing if it represented an optimal means of improving Uganda's primary educational system. The EAO apparently selected the University of Alberta as the training institution in the absence of knowledge of the university's capacity and willingness to participate, and of the facilities available in other Canadian universities.

At the university, lack of knowledge of the trainees' previous educational backgrounds and the nature of Uganda's educational system, made decisions concerning the academic study program less accurate than desirable. As Robertson puts it, the university never really knew the Ugandan situation; thus the curriculum could not be appropriate.[1] Decisions of the residential staff suffered from a lack of relevant knowledge of the trainees' background and culture. For example, the placement of trainees in basement rooms was probably considered "insulting" to them, while expecting a married Ugandan woman to share a room with another woman was contrary to traditional Ugandan culture.

The university's decision to limit the study program to seven

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[1] This was in spite of the fact that an official in the Ugandan Ministry of Education had privately sent the university a copy of the syllabus for Ugandan primary schools in November, 1964.

months was also made without knowing beforehand that the Ugandan Government's policy of officially recognizing further professional training of its teachers was in terms of length of the course rather than the quality of the program. This policy was only discovered when Coutts and Reeves visited Uganda in 1966. If such knowledge had been made available to the university in 1965, then the decision might well have been to institute a two-year program. It is significant that the university seemed unaware of the fact that Uganda had specified "two years" as the desired length of the training program in the A8 form for the 1964-65 program.

COORDINATING

Coordination among Organizational Intermediaries

Coordination among the organizational intermediaries of the Project is clearly called for by contemporary administrative theory (supra, p.24). One university administrator stated that there was practically no coordination among EAO, Uganda, and The University of Alberta in the first year: "the people in Uganda did their thing, the people in Ottawa did their thing, and then we did our thing." The events which have been narrated supports this view. In the first instance, the university was not informed of Uganda's request and EAO's acceptance of the Project until about two weeks before arrival of the trainees, even though the request had been received by EAO nearly nine months earlier.

Secondly, there was no serious coordination between Uganda and the university over the type of training given, and the post-return

utilization of the acquired skills. Albeit, Uganda did specify curriculum objectives which the university attempted to fulfill. However, there was no coordination to anticipate and ensure that returned trainees would be provided the opportunities, and moral and material encouragement to practise their skills. In the second year, coordination improved in that the university knew well in advance if the trainees were coming. Consequently, forward preparations for staffing, curriculum design, and an orientation program could be made. However, the problem of Uganda-university on utilization of trainees' skills remained unresolved.

In retrospect, because the EAO, the Ugandan Ministry of Education, and the university are autonomous organizational entities in relation to each other, the "directive" form of coordination, with a central authority specifying obligatory rules for each organization, would not have been feasible. One mechanism that might have seen use, however, is Simon's (1957:106) suggestion of an overall plan which is first developed and the portion relevant to the individual member of a group (in this case, an organization) communicated to it. Development of such a plan demands, of course, participation of the various parties involved, since each must be willing to permit its behavior to be guided by the plan. Another useful mechanism, as explained by Charters (1964:258), simply involves effective exchange of information between the participating organizations, so that each may be alerted to difficulties, and mutual adjustments made.

Coordination at The University of Alberta

Scant evidence is found concerning coordination among instructors of different subject-areas in the curriculum. The little that is available

suggests that the degree of coordination was less than that desired by a few or some instructional staff. One of the instructors interviewed would have liked to see some kind of "team effort" in which the instructors met regularly to discuss the total program. Each instructor can therefore better see how his particular course fitted into the whole. Another instructor, in a letter to the Chairman, Department of Elementary Education, stated that any sectioning of trainees into groups and special arrangements necessary for organizing the curriculum should be discussed in inter-departmental meetings rather than via the "present rather unilateral responsibility". On the other hand, one administrator claimed that program staff met at least once a week to compare anectodal records and to work out the best program possible.

Coordination among administrative personnel, and the major community groups which provided for social and extra-curricular needs of the trainees, was in general good. As the Dean of Women recalled, the Faculty of Education was always aware of "everything", and prepared to give the residential administration every assistance it required. Social experiences via the activities organized by the Zonta Club, the Varsity Christian Fellowship, wives of faculty staff members, and other on- and off-campus groups were apparently all initiated with the prior knowledge and support of the Project administrators. The ease with which these activities proceeded, and a lack of "clashes" between them, are indicators of a considerable investment of coordinating effort in this area.

COMMUNICATING

Communication Among Organizational Intermediaries

In a letter to the Dar-es-Salaam mission dated August 1, 1963, the Director-General of EAO stated that all correspondence regarding aid scholarships should follow "official channels", and that Canadian university authorities were aware of the fact that only EAO had the authority to make commitments regarding aid training in Canada. However, the universities were not precluded from answering direct enquiries from the recipient country concerned, especially with respect to academic matters. The nature of communication among the organizational intermediaries involved in the Project followed closely this policy. Thus the university never officially communicated directly with the Ugandan government (except during the Coutts-Reeves visit in Uganda). Unofficially, Coutts briefly exchanged views with an official in the Ugandan Ministry of Education regarding the suitability of the curriculum. The official also sent the university a copy of the syllabus for Ugandan primary schools.

EAO itself did not appear to have communicated directly with the Ugandan Government, except with the Ugandan High Commissioner to Canada resident in New York. Prior to arrival of the first-group trainees in Canada, the ambassador frequently contacted the EAO by phone and vice versa. The main communication channel between EAO and Uganda was, however, via the Dar-es-Salaam mission. Both EAO and Ugandan authorities transmitted messages to the mission which then relayed them on to one or the other organization.

Two aspects of such inter-organizational communication bear comment. First, it is seen that hardly any face-to-face communication between EAO officials and Ugandan authorities occurred, the only major instance being the visit of the delegation from the Ugandan Ministry of Education to Ottawa in August, 1964. By that time, a "commitment" apparently had already been made by the Dar-es-Salaam mission. While the absence of an EAO officer resident in Uganda at the time explains the lack of face-to-face communication, the presence of a third organization in the communication channel between Uganda and EAO inevitably increased the possibility of message "distortions". As it turned out, the mission did not strictly function as a "neutral" transmitter of messages, and EAO's view that Canada had no project available suiting Uganda's requirements seemed not to have been relayed to Ugandan authorities.

Secondly, while EAO as a governmental aid organization was quite justified in insisting that Canadian universities did not unilaterally commit Canada to aid projects, the official channels of communication set up clearly isolated the university from authorities in Uganda. Looking back on the difficulties instructors and administrators experienced in designing an appropriate curriculum, owing to a lack of information about the trainees and Uganda's needs, it is hard to avoid the conclusion that a more direct route of communication connecting Uganda and the university would have benefited the Project considerably. Ideally, of course, there should have been face-to-face communication of Ugandan officials with university representatives for mutual clarification of goals, objectives and means of implementing them.

Cross-Cultural Communication

Earlier discussions have shown that in aid study programs where the trainees come from a culture significantly different from that of the host country, the issue of cross-cultural communication becomes an important determinant of program effectiveness and efficiency (supra, p. 26,52). "Culture shock" for students and hosts pose problems affecting optimum performance. Several instances of cross-cultural communication difficulties are found in the Project. One rather conspicuous problem was over the "consciousness of time". The trainees' apparent "lack of sense of time" for formal (e.g. lectures) or informal occasions, contrasted with the time-conscious nature of their Canadian hosts or instructors. This problem led, in fact, some university personnel to suggest that the second-group trainees buy alarm clocks so that they would arrive at classes or wherever they were going on time. That it occurred is of course not surprising; as a pioneering researcher in non-verbal behavior has shown, time is "an element of culture which communicates as powerfully as language". (Hall, 1959:165).

In the early stages of their stay, the first-group trainees in particular found difficulty in interpreting Canadian actions and customs. Thus they wondered why Canadians would not shake hands with them, or treated them in a casual manner. The Phi Delta Kappa's "culture shock" committee (Regan, 1968:28-35) noted that the trainers' impression of haste in Canadians, exemplified by the emphasis on punctuality and fast walking, and the informality of Canadian greeting habits, combined in the trainees' perception as an "atmosphere of apparent unfriendliness". The trainees also interpreted as "insulting", "rude", or "unfriendly" the following normal Canadian customs: not speaking to strangers; moving

over in a bus seat for a newcomer; avoiding sitting at an already occupied table in a restaurant if empty tables are available; the "direct, first-person" approach to teaching and learning; questions on basic facts of Uganda; being given basement rooms in the residences.

More specific problematic events of cross-cultural communication occurred during a visit by trainees to a football game, where they misinterpreted hot dog as real dog's meat, and strongly objected to a good, strong body check in the game. First-group trainees were also upset over news columns in The Gateway[1] and The Edmonton Journal[2] which reported the trainee's statement that they felt like "eating snow" upon seeing it. This reportage was perceived by the trainees as making them seem "queer and childish".

Cross-cultural communication may be assumed to be less problematic for second-group trainees. This is because during their orientation program, the Phi Delta Kappa committee discussed with the trainees the elements of culture shock observed to occur among first-group trainees the previous year. University personnel thus learned from the lessons of the first year, and acted to cushion "culture shock" for second-group trainees. However, because cross-culture communication is a two-way affair, some "pre-training" of Canadian groups as well would also have been very useful, as one committee member stated in his interview.

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1 The official student paper of The University of Alberta.

2 A daily newspaper of Edmonton.

EVALUATING

Formative Evaluation

In each year's program, formative evaluation was carried out by instructional and administrative staff at the university in a number of standard ways. Apart from the formal devices of assignments, tests, and examinations, discussions in class provided clues to the level of comprehension achieved by the trainees and the areas of difficulty. In addition, the informal observations of host families such as the Zontans, have been shown to assist university staff considerably in knowing what problems trainees were facing. Under the more informal conditions of social visits, the trainees were obviously more willing to express their true feelings.

Two major interim appraisals of first-group trainees' progress were conducted in November, 1964, and February, 1965. At each session, all instructors and Faculty of Education administrators connected with the Project were present. The individual instructors gave short reports of their courses, listing marks on assignments and tests, as well as the major strengths and weaknesses of the trainees. Such formative evaluation of the program as a whole, with all instructors comparing notes and pooling suggestions for resolution of difficulties, undoubtedly improved the curriculum as it proceeded. It is not known if similar appraisal sessions were conducted in the second year.

Summative Evaluation

Two levels of summative evaluation may be considered to apply to the Project. First, each year of the training program can be summatively

evaluated immediately upon its completion. Secondly, in contrast to such immediate summative evaluation, there is the "follow-up" or "long-range" evaluation in which trainees' progress are monitored for a period of time after their return to home countries.

For the first year program, a final assessment session was conducted on March 31, 1965. Present were Robertson, Sparling, and Richardson, the Assistant Dean of Women elect who had also served as an instructor, and the first-group trainees. The latter gave evaluative comments on personal, administrative and social aspects of their program. Several recommendations came out of the session, including the following: the External Aid student's handbook should be given to trainees two or three weeks before leaving Uganda, so that they are informed of scholarship provisions for clothing, medical services, and personal effects; first-group trainees should be used by Ugandan authorities to assist in pre-departure orientation for the next group; arrival on September 1, 1966 would provide trainees an adjustment period during which facility in written English could be improved; incoming trainees could receive a personal letter from Robertson before leaving Uganda, thus establishing an early personal relationship.

An immediate summative evaluation of the 1965-66 program occurred during the Vermilion College community education course. At the commencement of the course, a questionnaire was administered to the twenty-eight second-group trainees. However, only four questions were asked: the first sought the trainees' liking for each individual

course taken at the university; the second asked trainees to name the course they felt would be most useful to them as teachers in Uganda; questions 3 and 4 were respectively on the most and least liked experiences of the trainees in Canada. The results of the survey, compiled by C.A.S. Hynam, Director of the Community Education Course, showed that the most liked common courses were Educational Psychology (100%), [1], Science (89%), Mathematics (82%), and Art (80%), while the least liked were Linguistics (33%), Educational Foundations (31%), and Social Studies (11%). Twenty-two of twenty-seven trainees who answered question (2) felt Educational Psychology to be the course with most utility to their teaching in Uganda. Most liked experiences included such events, places, or things as Icecapades, the Planetarium, Banff snow resort, the kindness shown by Zontans and university "Big Sisters", family visits, and Canadian friendships. As stated before, food and weather proved to be the least liked experiences.

At the end of the community education course, another questionnaire was administered to assess the trainees' reactions to the course (Hynam, 1966:15-24). Briefly, the findings were as follows: practically all the courses taken were liked by a majority of the trainees, though English showed a conspicuous percentage (14%) who liked it "not at all", typing (46%) was considered as the course which would be most useful to teaching in Uganda; in general, trainees preferred the first two "activity" weeks of the course to the last four weeks of lectures and discussions, though

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[1] Percentage of trainees choosing the answer "very much".

the same percentage (42-43%) felt that both phases had increased their capabilities as teachers or community workers; in terms of social experiences, the visits to the Indian Reserve and the Hutterite Colony were clear favourites among the trainees, though visits to farms ranked above these two places as being most useful for teaching or community work in Uganda.

The role of EAO in immediate summative evaluation (as well as formative evaluation) was negligible. Each group of trainees at the end of their program returned to Ottawa where they were interviewed by EAO officials. However, as trainee B recalled, these were only brief, informal discussions. One EAO respondent admitted that the office relied on the university to evaluate, and expected a report though it did not actually request it.

In sum, the immediate summative evaluation of the Project focused on the reactions of the trainees to their training program and Canadian experiences. While this focus omitted consideration of important administrative issues, such evaluation by the university proved useful to the operation of the Project. Thus the assessment of the 1964-65 program was utilized by Project staff in an attempt to improve the 1965-66 curriculum. If the Project had continued beyond 1966, a smilar use of the 1965-66 summative evaluation could have occurred, and so on. The brief questionnaire approach taken in the second year yielded, however, much less information than the participatory discussion session of the first year. It lacked especially a perspective on the reasons why some courses or experiences were less favoured than others -- surely essential if individual instructors or administrators were to learn from hindsight.

The type of summative evaluation so far described is fundamentally only partial assessment of the success of the Project. As The University of Alberta Report of the 1964-65 program stated of the trainees:

> ... Their ability to effect profitably changes in their own professional conduct in the schools' of Uganda, however, cannot be assessed conclusively in Canada. Therefore, an opportunity to assess the impact of these students in their own country is being sought.

This desire of the university was eventually expressed in the visit of H. T. Coutts and A. W. Reeves to Uganda in March, 1966, before the second year program had ended, and nearly a year after first-group trainees had returned. The report of Coutts and Reeves (1966:1) listed the terms of reference guiding their study as follows:

> 1. To assess on location the value of the "Uganda Primary Teacher Training Program" in the light of the students'[their]experience in Edmonton during the past two years.
> 2. To report to External Aid Office the facts as they find them, such as the employment situation for Canadian trained teachers, their influence on the Uganda teacher development, their progress and contribution to the general education of Uganda etc.
> 3. To recommend a future course of action for this project and to establish a new scheme of priorities if that is necessary.

During the visit, lasting about four days, Coutts and Reeves visited six primary schools, one secondary school, two teachers colleges, and the Institute of Education at Makarere University, and interviewed four Ugandan teachers who had been first-group trainees, three principals in schools employing these teachers, the Minister of Education, and a number of senior officials in the Ministry of Education. The essential findings have been partially described earlier, viz., all four of the first-group trainees interviewed appeared to have become better classroom teachers due to the training received; though there has been little opportunity for leadership or in-service training roles in the Ugandan

school-system. Coutts and Reeves also pointed out that the admissions requirements for Ugandan primary teacher-training were already being raised, so that the Project trainees would soon face competition from teachers with a more extensive academic and professional base. Thus, in their view, it was

> difficult to see how, in this situation, the teachers on the Alberta program could provide much leadership to other members of the teaching profession.

Another finding already discussed was the unequal treatment of Alberta trainees compared to those who trained in Australia or the United Kingdom in terms of teaching grade reclassification and salary entitlements.

On the basis of such findings, Coutts and Reeves recommended that no further groups of Uganda primary teachers with academic standing below that of senior matriculation be admitted to The University of Alberta. In the event such groups were still brought to Canada, they recommended training in a teachers' college not requiring matriculation standing for admission as well as a two-year academic and professional training program. Other recommendations made by Coutts and Reeves pertaining directly to the Project were that should the second year program be extended for another term, the trainees must receive the same salary entitlement and certificate reclassification as trainees sent to other countries, and that the two Asian Ugandan second-group trainees be permitted to stay another three years for the Bachelor of Education program.

The Coutts-Reeves evaluation falls under the category of "follow-up" evaluation, since the impact of the Project was assessed in Uganda some time (viz., one year) after the trainees returned. It

was based, however, only on the performance of four first-group trainees, and no valid projection of results to the second-year program can be attempted. Because the Project has been discontinued, any further long-term evaluation in Uganda would serve primarily the interests of theoretical knowledge on aid-study programs. It is noted, of course, that such knowledge would provide in turn valuable insights to the practice of aid-study programs in general.

Several interview respondents, when asked about the necessity for long-range evaluation, answered affirmatively. Coutts felt that the Ugandan Ministry of Education should have followed-up the returned trainees to see how they performed and whether their training had enriched Ugandan education. Moreover, there ought to be built into Canadian aid programs some follow-up evaluation at the end of a year or two, then at the end of five, and perhaps ten years. In general, most respondents subscribe to this view, particularly vis-a-vis the type of questions to be asked in long-range evaluation. An EAO respondent suggested, however, that five years was the minimum threshold period for ideas to take hold, if they do, in the practice of the trainees. Another even recommended twice-a-year evaluation in the earlier stages, followed later by once every four years. The instructors interviewed, and trainee B, believed that follow-up should be for two or three years after return of the trainees.

Worth pointed out that since no more aid study programs of the Uganda type will be undertaken by the university, follow-up was of little use apart from the renewal of social contacts between university personnel and trainees, and the "self-improvement" of instructors through seeing

how well trainees were performing after returning home. Another reservation about long-range evaluation came from an EAO respondent, who warned that such evaluation might be difficult to conduct, as the recipient nation may feel it is being blamed for not using trainees as planned in the aid project.

SUMMARY

An analysis of the administrative process of the Uganda Project has been presented in this chapter. Planning in the Project was discussed vis-a-vis its comprehensiveness, and the planning roles of the organizational intermediaries involved in the Project. The section on organizing dealt with formal and informal roles, conflicts within the social system of the Project, effectiveness and efficiency as interpreted by Getzels-Guba social behavior model, the temporary system employed, and follow-through. Decision-making was described in terms of decision-roles of organizational intermediaries, and its quality.

Coordinating was analyzed with respect to the coordination among organizational intermediaries, and at The University of Alberta. The discussion on communicating focused on the communication pattern among the organizational intermediaries, and issues of cross-cultural communication. Finally, there was an analysis of both formative and summative aspects of the evaluating conducted in or on the Project. Again, a detailed summary of the findings will be found in the last chapter of the thesis.

Chapter 7

SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

I. PROBLEM, THEORY, AND METHODOLOGY

The Research Problem

The basic question addressed by this study was simply: What is the nature of the administrative process in the Uganda-Canada Primary Teacher Training Project? There were two aspects to the problem posed by this question. First, it involved a description of the Project according to a taxonomic framework of six selected administrative task-areas -- student personnel, staff personnel, curriculum, finance, physical plant, and university-community relations. Secondly, it required an analysis of the administrative process in the Project. Such analysis was guided by prevailing organizational and educational administrative theory, and facilitated by focusing on a number of specific questions deemed essential vis-a-vis the administration of aid-study programs. There were two questions asked for each of the six selected administrative process components, except organizing, which required five. The questions, in summary form, were as follows:

(1) Planning -- comprehensiveness? roles of organizational intermediaries?

(2) Organizing -- formal and informal roles? role-conflicts? effectiveness and efficiency?

(3) Decision-making -- roles of organizational intermediaries? quality?

(4) Coordinating -- among organizational intermediaries? at The University of Alberta?

(5) Communicating -- among organizational intermediaries? cross-cultural?

(6) Evaluating -- formative? summative?

Theory

This study drew its theoretical base from two sources: general administrative theory, and theory concerning the administration of aid-study programs. The former provided several general guidelines for improved administrative behavior in the administrative process, viz.:

(1) planning should be systematic and comprehensive, and ideally proceeds through the phases of specification of goals and objectives, selection of optimum means for attaining these goals and objectives, and designing of procedures for obtaining required resources, and for plan implementation and control;

(2) organizing should be based on an awareness of the potentially beneficial or harmful influence of the informal organization to the attainment of formal goals and objectives;

(3) organizing should proceed with a knowledge of potential or actual conflicts within the social system, and efforts made to remedy areas of dislocation;

(4) organizing can be assessed through the concepts of "effectiveness and efficiency" defined by Barnard and interpreted by the Getzels-Guba social behavior model;

(5) decision-making, according to a substantial number of theorists and researchers should involve all relevant participants in the issue

under consideration.

(6) decision-making should proceed on the basis of sufficient knowledge of relevant information;

(7) coordinating is absolutely necessary to keep the parts of a whole group or organization in harmony;

(8) communicating should be free and open, and extend in all directions: upward, downward, horizontal, and extra-organizationally, in an environment of trust and goodwill;

(9) the difficulties involved in cross-cultural communicating should not be underestimated, and steps taken to resolve them;

(10) evaluating should be comprehensive and systematic, involving all aspects of input, context, process and output.

The writings and research on the administration of aid-study programs furnished several guidelines, too, for improved administrative behavior in such programs:

(1) priority in educational aid should be given to projects with high "multiplying effect" and sufficient "critical mass", integrated in the recipient nation's educational and socio-economic system, and which cannot be implemented with local resources alone;

(2) selection of trainees should involve extensive collaboration between the training institution in the donor country, the aid-agency, and the recipient nation itself, and give priority to poor but talented individuals;

(3) orientation should be given to trainees to cushion culture shock experienced on first arrival in an alien social and cultural, and also prior to returning home so as to ameliorate "re-entry shock";

(4) follow-through activities should be conducted on returned trainees in order to maximize the long-term effectiveness of the aid-program;

(5) provisions should be made for student personnel services which will meet the unique academic and non-academic problems faced by foreign trainees;

(6) instructional staff should have some form of pre-training in the subtleties of cross-cultural communication, knowledge of the educational system of the recipient nation, and the cultural empathy necessary for effective relationships with the trainees;

(7) an International Office with an officer of senior administrative status in universities or colleges involved in aid programs, should be set up to undertake the complex tasks of planning, organizing, implementing, and coordinating such programs;

(8) there should be greater complementarity of goals between university personnel and aid agency officials, and solutions sought for problems arising over the issue of university autonomy and aid-agency control;

(9) the curriculum of aid-study programs should bear relevance to the real needs of the recipient nation in the spheres of educational, social and economic development;

(10) the conflicts that can arise between goals of participating individuals and organizations should be recognized, and care taken that individual or personal goals of trainees are not allowed to negate the goals of the aid-giving to the recipient nation in the first place;

(11) evaluation of aid-study programs should focus not only on the academic aspects of the training program at the training institution, but

also on administrative aspects and the long-term impact of returned trainees in the development of their countries;

(12)the long-range objective of educational aid should be on institution-building in the recipient nation, though overseas training to relieve "bottlenecks" of qualified personnel urgently required for national development is also important.

The conceptual and theoretical framework provided by the foregoing twenty-two guidelines was then utilized in the analysis and interpretation of the administrative process in the Project.

Research Design and Methodology

The design of this investigation was in the category of descriptive research. It may also be considered a case-study, since it focused on the Project as a whole social unit. Two data-gathering techniques were employed: interviewing, and the study of documents. Instrumentation took the form of an interview schedule consisting of fifty-eight open-ended questions categorized under six administrative task-areas (student personnel, staff personnel, curriculum, finance, physical plant, university-community relationships) and one administrative process component (organizing). The schedule was constructed by Dr. L. R. Gue, Professor of Educational Administration, The University of Alberta.

Sampling was purposive in nature, and gave a sample of eighteen individuals. Of these, five were administrative personnel of the Project at The University of Alberta, three had instructed the trainees, two were involved with the Project as members of a Phi Delta Kappa committee at the university investigating culture shock among the trainees, one was a member of the major Edmonton community organization

in contact with the trainees, six served in the former External Aid Office at the time of the Project, and two respondents were second-group trainees who had since returned to Canada as landed immigrants.

The interviews were conducted at various times over the period July 22, 1972 to May 13, 1974. It was possible to tape-record the responses in eleven instances; for the seven other respondents, written notes were relied upon. In the documentary study, some one hundred and ninety-two different documents in all were found to yield relevant data. They were authored by University of Alberta personnel (66%), External Aid Office personnel (16%), Ugandan personnel, including trainees (9%), officials in the Office of the High Commission for Canada in Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania (5%), and other persons (4%). The documents took the form of letters, telegraphic messages, memoranda, minutes, and official reports.

Data processing involved abstracting from the "raw" interview responses and documentary information, answers to questions found in the interview schedule. After coding, all the "abstracts" relevant to each specific question were then collated to allow convenient comparison of opinions or beliefs of different respondents. The total accumulation of 703 abstracts (45% "documentary" and 55% "interview") was subsequently used for describing the Project according to the administrative task-areas framework, as well as to analyse and interpret the administrative process in the Project.

II. FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS AND CONCLUDING REMARKS

Summary of Findings

The essential findings of the study in relation to issues and events in the six selected administrative task-areas, the genesis of the

Project, its continuation for a second year, and its termination, were as follows:

(1) Genesis. Uganda first requested the aid-project through a meeting of its Minister of Education, and the Canadian High Commissioner resident in Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania. The evidence suggested that the High Commission may have committed Canada to the Project against the judgement of the External Aid Office. Though the request was received by the office in December, 1963, The University of Alberta was not involved until August 27, 1964, when a delegation from the Ugandan Ministry of Education visited EAO in Ottawa and repeated its aid request. On that day, the university's Faculty of Education was asked by EAO to undertake the Project. A fortnight later, the fifteen first-group trainees arrived in Canada.

(2) Selection of trainees was entirely conducted by Ugandan authorities, and did not appear to have been rigorous or systematic, except for the tribal representativeness of each group. Neither did it appear to entail open competition for the training scholarships. EAO relied merely on a paper review of selected trainees' qualifications, while The University of Alberta had no involvement at all in the selection process.

(3) Pre-departure Events. The second-group trainees, and probably the first group too, did not receive any pre-departure orientation before leaving for Canada. There was no formally arranged contact between returned first-group trainees and their second-year counterparts. Some trainees appeared to have left Uganda under "rush" conditions, while others received adequate time to get ready.

(4) Trainees' Characteristics. All the trainees (15 in 1964 and 30 in 1965) were women aged between 21 to 32 years. The average age for first-group trainees was 26; that of twenty-six of the thirty second-group trainees was 26. With two exceptions, the trainees were African Ugandans with an educational background of six years primary education, and four years of primary teacher training. In the second group, there were two Asian Ugandans who had obtained senior secondary school qualifications before spending two years in a primary teacher training college. A few trainees also possessed special certificates from an additional year at a domestic science college. Evidence on trainees' professional background is incomplete. Among first-group trainees, teaching experience extended from one to seven years generally in small rural schools short of teachers as well as instructional facilities. On the whole, administrative experience was not extensive -- only four first-group trainees had attained the post of headmistress.

(5) Reception and Orientation. Both groups were received by EAO officials in Ottawa immediately on arrival in Canada. Orientation at EAO was, however, minimal. Reception at Edmonton was well organized by university officials and various on-and off-campus community groups. The last-minute arrival of first-group trainees did not permit a pre-planned orientation program, though every effort was made by university personnel to assist trainees in adjusting to their new educational cultural and social milieu. Second-group trainees had the advantage of a two-week orientation program during which vigorous efforts were made to cushion culture shock, to improve facility in English, and to sharpen trainees'

study skills appropriate to the Canadian academic environment. Trainees were housed in university residences in both years.

(6) Academic and Non-Academic Problems. Two major academic problems were encountered by the trainees: difficulties in the English language, and in the understanding and use of concepts during their courses of study. Thirdly, the "direct" approach of Canadian methods of teaching in which students were expected to give personal opinions proved abhorrent to the trainees. Non-academic problems included the lack of native food, the severe Edmonton winter, and homesickness. Two trainees in 1965, and one in 1964, were sent home before their programs ended because of pregnancy begun in Uganda. The physical health of trainees was in general good, the most serious problem apparently being an appendix operation. Psychologically, however, some trainees were affected by worries over children and families left at home. Excess spending on luxury items left some trainees short of money for essential texts and stationery. Tribalism and Ugandan political issues caused some disharmony among the trainees themselves, though this was covertly expressed. Additional stress accrued from the attempt by the trainees to hide any problems encountered from the university authorities.

(7) Counselling. The trainee did not make any systematic use of university counselling services on their own initiative. Counselling and guidance were left primarily to Robertson, who was the de facto administrator in charge at the university. Considerable assistance also came from the residential administration. Most significant and interesting, however, was the informal counselling role played by members of the Zonta Club who acted as host families to the trainees. The trainees

apparently were very willing to confide in their Zontan hosts problems faced in their study program or personal adjustment.

(8) Achievement of the trainees was considered in general to be satisfactory, after taking into account their previous low academic base. In turn, not surprisingly, achievement was low relative to that of regular Canadian students. One trainee in 1964, and two in 1965, performed impressively, leading university personnel to recommend the extension of their program for another three years to Bachelor of Education level. These requests for extension were rejected by the Ugandan government as being inconsistent with the original goals of the Project. Despite the various academic and non-academic problems encountered, trainees apparently displayed a keen enthusiasm about their studies and a high degree of receptivity to new ideas and knowledge.

(9) Administrative Staffing. The administrative personnel involved with the Project at the External Aid Office included a training programme officer, who dealt with day-to-day administrative matters (e.g. trainees' stipends; travel arrangements), his supervisor who was Head of the EAO's Human Resources Section, and several senior officials who were concerned with major policy issues. Apart from the Director-General himself, the Directors of the Education, Training, and Technical Assistance Divisions were all involved.

University administrators primarily responsible for the Project were the Dean, Faculty of Education, the Chairman, Department of Elementary Education, and another officer who was the de facto administrator in charge. The latter's duties included practically all aspects of organizing, coordinating, and implementing the program of study. The

Chairman of the Department of Elementary Education was consulted on the appropriateness of curriculum plans, and together with the Dean of Education, were finally responsible for the major policy issues affecting the Project. The housing and general welfare of the trainees was under the direct supervision of university residential administrators including the Dean of Women.

No evidence is available on administrative staffing in Uganda. In the initial planning stage, of course, the Ugandan Minister of Education as well as the Canadian High Commissioner in Dar-es-Salaam played substantive roles in the aid negotiations.

(10) Instructional Staffing. A majority of instructors in the study program were usually graduate students in the Department of Elementary Education. At least six or seven of such staff were employed each year. Five, and four Faculty of Education professors taught the trainees in 1964 and 1965 respectively. Some changes of instructional staff over the two years of the Project occurred because of an individual instructor's self-perception of inadequacy, or the perceived inadequacy of an instructor's ability to relate with the trainees.

(11) Support and Informal Staffing. The major support staff at EAO was a clerk who assisted the training officer in routine administrative matters. At the university, two or three graduate students assisted during orientation and observed trainees during their teaching practicum in Edmonton schools. Eight, and seven Edmonton elementary school teachers respectively cooperated in the first- and second-year's practicum. Informal staffing was provided by members of the Zonta Club, members of the Phi Delta Kappa "culture shock" committee, and staff of Vermilion

College during the 1966 Community Education course for second-group trainees.

(12) Adequacy of Staffing. While administrative opinion at EAO and the university on the adequacy of staffing provided was in general favourable, there were difficulties caused by the inability of some instructors to adapt to the trainees' needs, and vice versa. The majority of instructors, being graduate students at the same time, also suffered from time constraints in preparing for the training program.

(13) Curriculum Goals. The primary formulator of goals and objectives for the curriculum of the Project was the Ugandan Government. Emphasis was placed on the up-grading of the trainees' ability in infant teaching. EAO had no involvement in any goal-setting, while the university designed a program which attempted to meet the goals set by Uganda. There was also concern among all organizational intermediaries with the social goal of international understanding. Numerous opportunities were therefore devised to allow contact between trainees and the Canadian community.

(14) Changes in Curriculum. Over the two years of the Project, there were four major changes in the curriculum. First, first-group trainees were found unable to cope with courses in regular university classes; thus they were withdrawn into a special class by themselves. Secondly, the orientation program in 1965 had an increased emphasis in English language training. Thirdly, a few high-achieving second-group trainees were allowed to attend one or two additional regular university courses. Fourthly, there was an attempt in the second year to give more practical experience to the trainees.

(15) Adequacy of Curriculum. Though subjective opinions on the realism and workability of the curriculum included those which were very favourable, an objective appraisal of the difficulties encountered is supportive of the less favourable responses. To begin with, the university was unwilling and unable to provide trainees with the highly concrete activity-based and "rote" curriculum which they desired. Even the attempt to provide increased practical experience in the second year was beset with serious difficulties. Secondly, owing to the limited base of their previous academic and professional education, the trainees were "overwhelmed" by the diversity of material presented.

(16) Financial Roles. The External Aid Office was the major financial sponsor of the Project. It bore the costs of the return air journey of trainees between Uganda and Canada, their stipends for food, lodging, and personal expenses, a book and clothing allowance, shipping of return luggage, and medical or hospital fees incurred. There is no evidence that the university subsidized the Project financially in any way. The Ugandan government may have paid for trainees' travel to, and residence in Kampala prior to departure, if they came from outside the capital city. It also continued to pay the salaries of trainees with children of their own.

(17) Project Costs. At least $71,000 and $136,000 respectively were incurred in the 1964-65 and 1965-66 programs, excluding medical expenses and charges for shipment of return luggage. If a rough estimate of the latter item is included, the total cost of the Uganda Project (1964-66) would therefore be minimally $210,000. The average cost per trainee was estimated to be $4,900 and $4,670 in the first and second

years respectively, while over the two years, the average was about $4,750. Instructional costs, including tuition, materials and staff-student transportation, comprised about 26% of the estimated total, personal maintenance expenses about 45%, major travel costs about 25%, and miscellaneous costs 4%.

(18) Physical Plant. In general, physical plant facilities were considered adequate except for two reservations. One was the apparent inability of the university to provide building space for special workshop rooms more appropriate for the type of curriculum needed. The other was the lack of facilities within the residences for trainees to cook their own kinds of food.

(19) Trainee-Community Relationships. In each year of the Project, there was considerable contact between trainees and the off-campus Canadian community in a variety of social situations. Members of the Zonta Club of Edmonton were the major participants, acting as host families to the trainees. Other groups included in the first year, wives of university faculty staff, and the Edmonton Exchange Teachers' Club. Second -group trainees had the opportunity of interacting with the community of Vermilion, the Hutterite colony at Minburn, and the Saddle Lake Indian Reserve, during their Community Education course at Vermilion Agricultural College.

Such social relationships were on the whole well received by both trainees and the community members involved. Various groups on campus also provided trainees with opportunities for social experiences. Of these, the role of the Phi Delta Kappa "culture shock" committee was unique in its explicit objective of assisting the adjustment of the trainees to new social and cultural milieu. The other groups included the Varsity

Christian Fellowship, the International Students Club, the Education Undergraduate Society, dormitory groups in the residences and a number of foreign student clubs.

(20) Adequacy of Social Needs Provision. In general, the provision for social needs of the trainees was deemed to be highly adequate, especially in the opportunities offered for interaction between trainees and Canadians. The interactions, moreover, involved mutual exposure of the participants to each other's culture -- a necessary first though not necessarily sufficient step towards cross-cultural understanding. Comparing the two years, second-group trainees had the added advantage of the many field trips to off-campus communities during their community education course. First-group trainees, however, enjoyed the experience of travelling across Canada by rail.

(21) Continuation in 1965. The Project was continued in 1965 for a second year with great reluctance on the part of some senior EAO officials, who considered it unjustifiably costly for the returns expected. Arguing that EAO's long-term objective should be the setting up of local training institutions in Uganda, these officials seemed convinced at the beginning of the 1965-66 program that it should be the last. At the university's insistence, EAO also finally agreed to a university survey team to visit Uganda in 1965 to participate in trainee selection as well as to assess Uganda's educational needs and priorities, and the impact of the Uganda Project to date. This visit was eventually postponed to March, 1966, and university personnel did not participate in selection of second-group trainees.

(22) Termination. In August, 1965, Professors Dadson and Flower

of the Ontario College of Education, University of Toronto, surveyed the educational needs of East Africa on behalf of the External Aid Office. Their report, as well as a policy speech by the Ugandan Minister of Education in 1965, gave priority to the development of secondary and vocational education. Disappointed at the apparent neglect of primary educational needs in these views, the university broached the idea of terminating the Project after the completion of the second year program. However, after clarification from EAO that the Dadson-Flower Report did not constitute final decisions on aid to Uganda, the university seemed prepared to continue the Project beyond 1966, though it did prescribe several conditions for doing so.

This chain of events was interrupted by a request in early 1966 from Uganda that the one-year program for second-group trainees be extended by another year, on the grounds that a longer program would result in more effective teachers. Though EAO, and initially the university, seemed ready to accept this request, the visit of the university survey team to Uganda in March, 1966, dramatically altered the situation. The Coutts-Reeves team not only recommended that the Uganda Project as it was constituted be discontinued, but also stated that university Project personnel were against any extension of the second-year program as requested by Uganda. On June 30, 1966, soon after the Community Education course at Vermilion College for second-group trainees ended, the Uganda Project officially terminated.

The analysis and interpretation of the administrative process in the Uganda Project yielded the following essential findings:

(1) Comprehensiveness of Planning. The degree of comprehensiveness in planning for the Project was low. Though aid for primary teacher training was consistent with the prevailing educational needs of Uganda, and theoretically satisfied criteria for effective aid, there was apparently no attempt on the part of EAO to carefully consider the alternative forms the aid could take before selecting an optimum means. There was also no serious consideration of the resources, apart from finance, necessary for the well-being of the Project, or the design of implementation and evaluation procedures on the part of EAO before the Project went ahead. For the second year of the Program, the university made vigorous attempts to improve the planning process, and succeeded on a number of tactical issues. Thus trainees arrived in time for a pre-planned orientation program, and staffing arrangements could be made well in advance of program commencement. Tactical planning in the first year was, of course, ad hoc owing to the arrival of trainees just prior to the beginning of the academic term, and the late knowledge of the university that it was to be the training institution.

(2) Planning Roles. Uganda held the major planning role in the Project, identifying the needs, goals, means and even the specific objectives of the curriculum. EAO's participation in the initial planning was negligible. The office merely accepted the aid project in the form set by Uganda, indicating an underlying attitude towards planning which was more "satisficing" than "optimizing". The university did not participate at all in the negotiations that initiated the Project. However, as the Project proceeded, university personnel indicated a strong desire to be involved in strategic planning issues.

(3) Pre-departure Organizing. Because EAO and the university did not participate in pre-departure organizing, Ugandan criteria determined pre-departure organizing activities. Thus selection appeared to have been based primarily on the criterion of tribal representativeness and was neither uniform nor rigorous, and no pre-departure orientation was given before trainees left for Canada. Conceivably, the selection process could have been improved had the university, in particular, participated.

(4) Formal and Informal Roles. The formal role of training programme officer at EAO was seen to be relatively marginal vis-a-vis the study program, even though he was the most immediate aid-agency officer in contact with the trainees at the university. It was suggested that his closer identification with the training program would aid the making of sounder administrative decisions at EAO. The role of Robertson in the training program on campus was clearly the most central among all the formal roles involved. She was responsible for the day-to-day organizing of administrative, instructional, support and informal resources, familiar with the academic and personal progress of each trainee, and provided a focal point of leadership to the Project. The informal roles played by the Zonta Club ladies in meeting the social needs of trainees proved extremely valuable to the formal operation of the Project. Since trainees were more willing to express openly problems and worries to their Zontan hosts, the latter became useful sources of feedback which gave clues to university staff on where the real problem-areas were.

(5) Social System Conflicts. The major source of conflict between EAO and the Dar-es-Salaam Canadian High Commission was over the latter's apparent "commitment" of Canada to the Ugandan request for the Project,

even though the office had insisted it could not accommodate such a program. This particular conflict clearly demonstrates a logical need for careful definition and delineation of the role of overseas missions vis-a-vis commitment of their countries to aid-projects. The EAO and the university dissented over (a) the issue of university participation in trainee selection in Uganda, which the university had insisted, quite rightly, would contribute to the well-being of the Project, (b) the costs of the Project which EAO considered unjustly high, (c) the need for early planning, which EAO did not seem to endorse, (d) the trans-Canada train journey by first-group trainees, which university personnel considered would benefit the trainees educationally, as opposed to EAO's preference for air-travelling, which it considered most "effective and efficient", and (e) the strong encouragement given by the university to a few trainees to extend their programs of study to degree level.

Instructors and trainees both experienced mutual role-conflict owing to differing expectations about how each other should behave as student and teacher. It was suggested that a gradual transition from "rote" to "student-active" learning was more realistic than expecting trainees to learn on their own initiative straightaway. Uganda and the university disagreed over (a) the study extensions recommended for two trainees by the university, (b) the 1966 Community Education course which Uganda apparently did not favour, (c) the extension of the second-year program by one more year which Uganda requested but which the university rejected; and (d) the initial refusal of the Ugandan government to give equal status to Alberta trainees relative to those

trained in Australia or the United Kingdom. The latter conflict was resolved soon after the second-group trainees returned, when the Ugandan Ministry of Education held an in-service course for Alberta trainees. Those who attended received the same certificate reclassification and salary entitlements as Australian or U.K. trainees.

(6) Effectiveness. If the short-term expectations of the trainees were simply that they increased their professional competence in teaching infants, then the Project may be considered to have achieved a reasonable degree of effectiveness. The evidence for this conclusion comes from the observations of Coutts and Reeves in Uganda, 1966, of some returned first-group trainees at work in their schools. However, if short-term expectations included formal leadership roles of returned trainees in teacher in-service and training activities, then the effectiveness appeared to be low in the case of first-group trainees. Four of these trainees were found by Coutts and Reeves not to have opportunities for any such roles. Owing to the lack of evidence, no valid generalization can be made in the case of second-group trainees. Likewise, it is not possible to assess the long-term effectiveness of the Project on the basis of the available data, and any final judgement on this question rests on a more complete picture of other trainees' experiences through a follow-up study in Uganda.

(7) Efficiency. Some inefficiency (as defined by Barnard and as interpreted by Getzels-Guba social behavior model) characterized trainees' behavior during the study program, in that their instructors' expectations for a "student-active" role on their part contrasted with their needs to be "passive" and to be told what to do during the

teaching-learning process. The extent to which strain affected the short-term effectiveness of the Project is, however, not known. Likewise, the efficiency of returned trainees, which is clearly a matter of great bearing on the long-term effectiveness of the Project, remains an unresolved question due to a lack of evidence. In general, the efficiency of both EAO and university administrative personnel, was not very high since they undertook a Project they would have preferred not to have taken on in the first place. Efficiency, again, is taken here in the Barnard sense and as interpreted by the Getzels-Guba model.

(8) Temporary System Utility. There appeared to be no thinking on the part of university personnel that the temporary system structure of the Project had any distinct utility compared to the enrolment of trainees in regular university courses. If anything, the weight of opinion tended towards the latter mode of organization, isolation from the university's mainstream being viewed in generally unfavourable terms.

(9) Follow-through. There were no formal follow-through activities conducted either by EAO or the university. The little which occurred (namely, informal correspondence between a few trainees, and university personnel and host families) provided useful feedback to the university on the progress of returned trainees. The most significant piece of information that came back was about the teaching certificate reclassification controversy.

(10) Decision-Making Roles. An examination of decision roles of the organizational intermediaries involved in the Project showed that

decisions made by Uganda and by the university were quite complementary. It was suggested that a joint approach to decision-making by these two organizations should creat less likelihood of one set of decisions nullifying that made independently by the other organization. EAO's role in decision-making was also deemed inadequate, and a more active approach, it is argued, would have improved the Project's administration.

(11) Quality of Decisions. The quality of decision-making was affected considerably by a lack of pertinent knowledge necessary to make sound decisions. This occurred during the apparent decision of the Dar-es-Salaam mission to commit Canada to the Project, in the decision of EAO to select The University of Alberta as the training institution, of the residential administration in placing trainees within the residences, and most importantly, the decisions of university staff concerning the type and length of curriculum required.

(12) Coordination among organizational intermediaries was very poor, especially during the first-year program when the university was not brought into the picture until practically on the eve of the arrival of first-group trainees. Though coordination improved somewhat in the second year (e.g. Uganda sent trainees in time for an orientation pre-planned by the university), there was still little coordination between the university and Uganda on the utilization of trainees' Canadian-acquired skills after their return home. It was suggested that coordination could have been improved by a common overall plan agreed to by all the organizational intermediaries, and by more effective exchange of relevant information throughout the course of the program. A small amount of evidence hints that coordination among instructional

staff may have been less than desired by one or two instructional staff may have been less than desired by one or two instructors. Among the Project administration, and the major community groups in contact with trainees, coordination appeared to be excellent, with a distinct lack of clashes between the various social activities organized.

(13) Inter-organizational Communication. The intervening presence of the Dar-es-Salaam mission in the communication channel between Uganda and the EAO may have resulted in some message distortions as the mission relayed communication from one to the other organization. Thus the mission appeared not to have passed on to Uganda EAO's message that it had no program meeting Ugandan requirements. The official communication channels set up were also seen to isolate the university from Ugandan authorities. It was suggested that a more direct route of communicating between these two intermediaries, preferably face-to-face, would have provided each, especially the university, with much more adequate information for sound decision-making.

(14) Cross-cultural Communication. Certain problems of cross-cultural communication and culture shock were experienced by trainees as well as their instructors and Canadian hosts. These occurred mainly over the issue of consciousness of time, and the trainees' interpretation of normal Canadian customs as rude or friendly. University personnel learnt from the difficulties affecting first-group trainees, and attempted to cushion culture shock for second-group trainees. The Phi Delta Kappa committee assisted Project staff considerably in the attempt.

(15) Formative Evaluation of each year's study program appeared

to have been quite comprehensive, and undoubtedly contributed to an improved curriculum as it proceeded. Standard devices (e.g. tests, assignments, discussions) were used by individual instructors. At least in the first year, the staff as a group were brought together at joint appraisal sessions where the Project's progress was examined from a total perspective.

(16) Summative Evaluation of each year's study program was carried out immediately at the end of the program. In 1964-65, the evaluation proceeded by way of a discussion in which first-group trainees openly gave evaluative comments on the Project to university administrative personnel. In 1965-66, a brief questionnaire was administered to the trainees. Though such evaluations focused on the trainees' reactions to their training program and Canadian experiences and omitted consideration of important administrative issues, they were useful in providing feedback which could be used to improve the next year's program. However, the brief questionnaire approach used in the second year was clearly too superficial.

EAO played a negligible role in either summative or formative evaluation; its interviewing of trainees just prior to their departure from Canada was informal and brief. There was only one instance of follow-up evaluation in the Project, namely the visit by Coutts and Reeves to Uganda in March, 1966. It was seen that the survey yielded information about the progress of some returned first-group trainees and the difficulties they faced, which provided the basis for the team's recommendation that the Project, as it was constituted, be terminated. Obviously, there is a need for long-term follow-up evaluation at this

time, of the experiences of a representative sample of returned trainees that will furnish more conclusive evidence on the long-range or long-term effectiveness of the Project.

Implications of Findings

Because the Uganda Project is now history, the findings of this study cannot have any implications for the administration of the Project itself. Nevertheless, it is clear that some criteria for the improved administration of aid-study programs in general, are deducible from the problems encountered in the Project.

The first, very important criterion is the absolute necessity for comprehensive and systematic planning before any aid project is launched. A search for an optimum means of meeting properly identified and prioritized educational needs of the recipient nation, careful identification of resources needed, and the designing of plan control and implementation procedures, would not only prevent unrealistic projects, but also in the long term, means a more effective use of the limited resources available for aid programs.

A corollary to this criterion is the necessity for the training institution to be actively involved in the planning process from the very beginning. Unless mutual clarification and agreement of training institution and recipient nation in the sphere of Project goals and objectives exists, there is a danger of lack of coordination between what the institution attempts to achieve in the training program, and how the skills of the trainees are utilized by their government on returning home. Aid-agencies too need to adopt an "optimizing" attitude towards the planning of aid programs.

The second multi-faceted criterion which can be deduced is in the organizing for the study program itself. Clearly, participation of the training institution in candidate selection would not only permit the choosing of trainees with optimum qualifications for the program, but also give university personnel a first-hand knowledge of the educational background of the trainees. The organizing of staff for the Project should take into consideration the fact that the trainees came from a different social, cultural, and educational milieu, and invariably face difficulties of cross-cultrual communication. Participating staff need therefore to have cultural empathy, and some idea of how to meet such difficulties.

To provide necessary leadership to a project, a role such as that played by Robertson, where the role-incumbent is involved full-time in the administration of the project, seems indispensable. The utility of informal counselling roles which can be played by host families should not also be overlooked, while special initial orientation programs are a must in ameliorating the strain experienced by trainees in adjusting to an alien academic, social and cultural environment.

The third major criterion to be derived from the Project is the importance of effective communication among the organizational intermediaries especially between training institution and recipient nation. It yields the benefits of improved decision-making and better coordination.

Last, but not least, the Project has demonstrated the necessity of follow-up evaluation which assesses the impact and progress of returned trainees in their home countries. Unless such evaluation is done, the long term effectiveness of any aid study programs will never be known, and no guidelines can be derived for future practice.

In sum, the events of the Uganda Project have confirmed practically all the guidelines for improved administration of aid-study programs that could be drawn from a survey of the existing literature alone. Beyond such confirmation, however, the particular perspective of this study yielded three major additional criteria discussed in the preceding paragraphs, which focused explicitly on the administrative process of an aid project. In this sense, the anticipated significance of the investigation may be considered to have been realized.

Concluding Remarks

It was stated in the research problem that an effort would be directed towards formulating a generalization concerning the effectiveness and efficiency of the administrative process in blending human, material and organizational resources used in the administration and operation of the Project. The preceding analysis, interpretation, and discussion leads to the following conclusion: overall , despite the vigorous attempts on the part of The University of Alberta to make the Project work, such blending was neither very effective nor very efficient. There were serious deficiencies in all components of the administrative process, deficiencies that might have been averted had a more systematic and comprehensive approach to administration been adopted.

It is true, of course, that the study has not been able to assess conclusively the long-term effectiveness of the Project on the basis of the available evidence. Nonetheless, this negative conclusion clearly holds with respect to the administrative process in the Project as it was being planned and during its operation. It is also true that

the depth and scope of the present analysis has not permitted a comprehensive treatment of the constraints underlying these deficiencies in administrative behavior. Still,this has not detracted from the present depth of analysis in pointing out the problem-areas and in suggesting what "ideally" should have occurred.

The implications of this study for further research extend in three directions. First, with regard to the Uganda Project itself, an investigation could be undertaken at this time into the progress and impact of returned trainees in Uganda's educational system which occurred as a result of their Alberta training. Such evaluation, ten years after the initation of the Project, would provide a more conclusive judgement on the long-term effectiveness of the Project than the present study has afforded. From the particular perspective of curriculum evaluation, it would also be interesting to assess the value of the Community Education course which was given to second-group trainees but not the first group.

Secondly, the utility of the methodology used in this piece of research should be further tested by applying it to other specific aid-study programs. At the least, such studies would begin the process of documenting systematically and comprehensively the hitherto unrecorded Canadian efforts in training people from developing countries. The results of the present investigation suggest, though, that beyond mere documentation, additional Uganda Project-type studies could lead to an improved administrative process in Canadian aid-study or training programs and projects.

Thirdly, further research could be directed towards the adaptation of the methodology used in the present study to educational aid programs in general, Though this would necessarily require the devising of different interview schedules appropriate for the particular type of program, the basic analytical framework would remain unchanged.

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[1] All other unpublished documents utilized in the study are listed in Appendix E.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

CORRESPONDENCE

June 29, 1972

Mr. H.J. Hodder
Vice-President
Policy Branch
Canadian International Development Agency
122 Bank Street
Ottawa, Ontario
K1A 0G4

Dear Mr. Hodder:

Attached herewith please find a proposal for a study of the administrative processes in the Uganda Primary Teacher Training Program, implemented by the External Aid Office and The University of Alberta between 1964 and 1966. The proposal has been discussed with Dr. A.R. MacKinnon, who is quite familiar with its development.

Your consideration of this proposal would be very much appreciated.

Yours sincerely,

L.R. Gue

L.R. Gue
Associate Professor of
Educational Administration

LRG:lb
Enc.

Ottawa
K1A 0G4

FILE NUMBER
DOSSIER Nº

July 7, 1972

Dr. L. R. Gue
Associate Professor of
Educational Administration
Faculty of Education
The University of Alberta
Edmonton 7, Alberta

Dear Dr. Gue:

I have examined your proposal and have discussed its possible implications with my colleagues in Policy Branch. It is encouraging to find someone devoting a sabbatical year to the study of administrative processes in a development project.

As you know, CIDA funds are clearly earmarked for projects in developing countries and cannot be used as grants to Canadians for individually initiated research. You also know from your Thailand experience the range of complexities which are involved in development assistance relationships between countries. We must wait, accordingly, until your study has advanced beyond Phase One and you have received a response from the Uganda Ministry of Education before CIDA can determine precisely what contributions might be made to your efforts.

In Phase Two I am sure that arrangements can be worked out for access to files and to appropriate officers connected with the Uganda Primary Teacher Training Programme.

In the meantime, I would hope that you are exploring other possible sources of funding for the study (e.g., Canada Council travel grants; IIEP visiting fellowships). Also, please keep us informed so that we can determine what can be worked out together in making your study as beneficial as possible to all concerned.

Yours sincerely,

H. J. Hodder
Vice-President (Policy)

APPENDIX B

A STUDY OF ADMINISTRATIVE PROCESSES IN THE UGANDA PRIMARY TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAM THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA, 1964-1966

APPENDIX B

A STUDY OF ADMINISTRATIVE PROCESSES IN THE UGANDA PRIMARY TEACHER TRAINING PROGRAM, THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA, 1964-1966

by

L. R. Gue

Interview Schedule

I am making a study of the administrative processes used in the planning and implementation of the Uganda-Canada Primary Teacher Training Program, which was carried out by the Faculty of Education of The University of Alberta between 1964 and 1966. I would like to ask you a number of questions about your recollections of the Project, under several headings.

I. STUDENT PERSONNEL

1. Could you tell me what arrangements were made for the reception of the participants from Uganda when they arrived (a) in Canada, (b) in Edmonton?
2. What arrangements were made for their housing in Edmonton?
3. What arrangements were made for their meals?
4. What arrangements were made for counselling the participants with problems other than those connected with their program of studies?
5. What special problems emerged in connection with the program of study?
6. What special problems of a personal nature emerged?
7. How were participants selected for the U. of A. program?
8. What was the measure of their achievement in the U. of A. program?

II. STAFF PERSONNEL

1. Could you tell me how many administrative staff were assigned by your office to the Project?
2. What were the official positions of the persons assigned?
3. Could you describe any changes in administrative staffing arrangements made during the operation of the Project?
4. How many teaching staff were assigned to the Project, or involved with instructing the Uganda students?
   (U. of A. personnel)
5. How many support staff were assigned some clear role with the Project?
6. What were the official positions of the support staff?
7. Could you describe any informal staffing procedure which were used, or which emerged during the course of the Project?
8. Have you any general comments about the staffing of the Project?

III. CURRICULUM

1. Could you describe the goals of the training program, as you recollect them?
2. How many persons were involved in setting the goals of the training program?
3. What were the official positions of those involved in setting the goals?
4. How many persons were involved in planning specific programs for the participants?
5. Describe their official positions.

6. Were any new or temporary positions created for the implementation of the training program at the U. of A.?
7. Describe any changes in curriculum made during the course of the two years, 1964-1966?
8. What were the reasons for making these changes?
9. What evaluation procedures were used during the training program to modify or improve it?
10. In your opinion now, was the curriculum for the participants realistic and workable?
11. If you had the opportunity to plan a curriculum for this group again, how would you go about it?
12. What long-range evaluation procedures would you recommend now concerning the realism of the curriculum which was used?
13. Have you any general comments about the curriculum for the participants?

IV. FINANCES

1. Could you tell me the total Project cost (Uganda) (EAO) (U. of A.)?
2. What was the cost per participant?
3. What were the total travel costs?
4. What were the travel costs per participant?
5. What were the total maintenance costs?
6. What were the maintenance costs per participant?
7. What were the total instructional cost?
8. What were the instructional costs per participant?
9. What were the total miscellaneous costs?

10. What were the miscellaneous costs per participant?
11. What proportion of the total costs were borne by Uganda?
12. What proportion of the total costs were borne by Canada?
13. In your opinion, were the costs of the Project reasonable, in view of its goals?
14. If you were responsible for planning the Project again, what changes, if any, would you recommend the level of financial involvement of Uganda, EAO, and U. of A.?
15. Have you any general comments about the financial support of the Project?

V. ORGANIZATION

1. Could you comment on the way in which the human and material resources of your organization were brought together in order to make the Project work?
2. If you were planning for such a Project now, what suggestions would you make concerning the blending of human and material resources to make the Project work?

VI. PHYSICAL PLANT

1. In what buildings were the participants housed:
   (a) immediately prior to leaving Uganda for Edmonton?
   (b) en route from Uganda to Edmonton?
   (c) on the University of Alberta campus?
   (d) on any field trips in connection with their program?
   (e) on their return journey to Uganda?

(f) during any other part of their total return travel from Uganda to Edmonton to Uganda?

2. What buildings were used by the participants in their instructional program

   (a) at The University of Alberta?

   (b) elsewhere than at The University of Alberta?

3. What learning resources and equipment were used by the participants

   (a) at The University of Alberta?

   (b) elsewhere than on The University of Alberta campus?

4. Have you any comments about the adequacy of the buildings and equipment used by the participants in their program?

VII. UNIVERSITY-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

1. Could you tell me the names of organizations in Alberta which provided opportunities for the Uganda students to participate in social activities off campus?
2. What types of activities were provided?
3. Could you tell me the names of individuals who provided social opportunities for the Uganda students?
4. What organizations in campus provided social events for the Uganda students.
5. What types of activities were these?
6. Have you any general comments about provisions for meeting the social needs of the participants?

APPENDIX C

DATA PROCESSING

APPENDIX C

DATA PROCESSING

Abstracting

The "abstracting" procedure essentially entailed isolating as concisely as possible, information from both interview responses and documents examined that constituted answers to each question on the interview schedule. Two advantages accrued from such abstracting. First, it removed from the initial bulk of "raw" interview and documentary evidence, information either of trivial nature or outside the scope of the study. Secondly, it allowed convenient comparison of evidence from different sources on a particular question. These advantages subsequently facilitated final reporting of the findings of the study.

"Abstracting" was, of course, relatively easier in the case of interview data, where the respondent was asked the full set of questions, than for documentary data, where the text of each document had to be examined carefully as to which schedule questions were answered by the evidence in it. In all, a total of 703 abstracts were obtained, 55% of these coming from interview data, and 45% from documents.

Coding

All the abstracts were coded by a three-tier numbering system, though there is a slight difference in form between the systems for interview and documentary abstracts. In the case of

interview abstracts, each had a code with the first number referring to a particular interview respondent, the middle number designating one of the seven categorical headings in the schedule or the eighth category of "Miscellaneous"[1], and a third number allowing easy identification of the original data in the processed interview transcript (often of lengthy nature) from which the abstract was obtained.

For documentary abstracts, the three-tier numbering system was preceded by a character which identified the category of authorship of the particular document. Five such categories were employed as follows:

Character	Authorship of Document
A	University of Alberta staff personnel
U	Ugandan Ministry of Education officials; Ugandan diplomatic personnel; Ugandan trainees
E	External Aid Office personnel
D	Personnel of the Canadian High Commission in Dar-es-Salaam
M	Other persons

Immediately following the character, the first number of the code[2] refers to the specific document from which the abstract originated, while the middle number again identifies the particular schedule category to which the question belongs. The third number, however, refers to the actual number of the question concerned as it is listed on the schedule.

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[1] As stated in Chapter 4, this category was found necessary and "created" during the data processing.

[2] The key for the first number specifies the author, receiver(if any), and date of the document, the source file, and file number(if any), as shown in Appendix E.

It is therefore in the third number where the numeral coding system for interview and documentary abstracts differed. The primary reason for the difference lies in the generally short length of the documents examined, so that no difficulty arises in locating the original data giving rise to a specific abstract.

The coding systems just described may be illustrated by means of a few examples of actual abstracts. Thus the abstract coded "4-1-001" comes from an interview with the respondent identified by the number "4", and falls under the schedule category labelled "1" (viz. Student Personnel). The complete code of "4-1-001" is found in the processed interview transcript where the original comments are located. The abstract coded as "D003-5-01", however, was obtained from a document (since a character precedes the numeral code) authored by personnel of the Canadian High Commission in Dar-es-Salaam("D"), and dealt with Question 1 ("-01") under the schedule category labelled "5" (viz. "Organization"). This particular document was in fact a letter sent by the Canadian High Commissioner resident in Dar-es-Salaam to the Director-General of EAO on September 7, 1963, in which the High Commissioner first informed EAO of the Ugandan request for the Project.

Collation and Storage

After the process of abstracting and coding, all the abstracts to each question on the schedule were collated manually, typed onto computer cards, and then listed on a computer print-out by calling a simple listing program. Tables 5 and 6 are respectively sample computer print-outs of (a) interview abstracts collated for Question (12) under the "Curriculum" category (in which interview respondents were asked to recommend long-range evaluation procedures concerning the realism

Table 5

Partial Computer Print-Out for Interview Abstracts of Data Related to Question(12) under "Curriculum"

Code	Interview Abstract
1-3-012	FOR LONG RANGE EVALUATION, COULD VISIT TRAINEES IF STILL TEACHING, BUT EXPECT MEMORY BASED EVALUATION TO BE COLORED BY TIME AND DISTANCE
1-3-013	... BELIEVES UGANDAN MINISTRY SHOULD HAVE FOLLOWED UP THE 45 TRAINEES TO SEE "HOW THEY PERFORMED" AND WHETHER THEIR TRAINING HAD ENRICHED UGANDAN EDUCATION. HOWEVER ONLY GENERAL TYPE OF EVALUATION WAS CARRIED OUT, NOT ON WHETHER TRAINEES WERE ENRICHING THE EDUCATION OF UGANDAN CHILDREN. "BUILT INTO ALL THESE CIDA PROGRAMS, THERE OUGHT TO BE SOME FOLLOW-UP EVALUATION AT THE END OF A YEAR OR TWO, THEN AT THE END OF FIVE YEARS, MAYBE TEN YEARS"
2-3-004	(1) INTERVIEW TEACHERS BACK IN UGANDA, ASKING THEM ABOUT ASPECTS OF CANADIAN EXPERIENCE WHICH THEY HAVE APPLIED,AND WHICH ASPECTS COULD BE USEFULLY STUDIED MORE BACK AT U.OF A. (2) FIRST INTERVIEW SHOULD BE WITHIN A YEAR OF RETURNING HOME, THEN ABOUT 5-6 YEARS LATER, WHEN TRAINEES WOULD BE MATURED BY EXPERIENCE. (3) NO CAREFUL DESIGN SET UP ABOUT WHAT U.OF A. WANTS TO DO, OR WHAT UGANDA WANTS U.OF A. TO DO, THUS HARD TO KNOW WHAT WE ARE EVALUATING. (4) SUSPECTS UGANDAN MINISTRY CONDUCTED THEIR OWN EVALUATION, THEN DECIDED NOT TO CONTINUE PARTICIPATING IN THE PROJECT.
3-3-011	IF THE PROJECT SPANNED OVER A NUMBER OF SUCESSIVE YEARS, WITH U. OF A. SELECTING THE TRAINEES, THUS KNOWING WHAT MATERIAL IS COMING, AND WHAT MIGHT BE DONE FOR THEM, THE LONG-RANGE EVALUATION PROCEDURES WOULD CONSIST OF OBSERVATION IN THE HOME COUNTRY AND IN CANADA, FEEDBACK AND OTHER INFORMAL TECHNIQUES, PLUS A FORMAL CONTENT EVALUATION USING VARIOUS INSTRUMENTS. THE LATTER IS DEPENDENT UPON KNOWING WHAT COURSES TO GIVE AND THE OBJECTIVES CAPABLE OF BEING REACHED.
5-3-002	BELIEVES CONTACT SHOULD BE KEPT WITH EACH TRAINEE SO AS TO ASSESS THEIR PROGRESS AND HOW THEY FELT ABOUT UTILITY OF PROJECT, TO KNOW WHAT THE ADJUSTMENTS HAVE BEEN, AND WHAT THEY HAVE CONTRIBUTED TO UGANDAN EDUCATION
6-3-007	LONG-RANGE EVALUATION SHOULD ASK QUESTION "HOW HAS THE ALBERTA EXPERIENCE CHANGED THEIR LIVES, THEIR TEACHING, AND THEIR INSTITUTIONS? SUGGESTS 5 YEARS AS MINIMUM THRESHOLD FOR IDEAS TO TAKE HOLD IF THEY DO
7-3-004	RECIPIENT COUNTRY SHOULD ASSESS PROJECT ITSELF. ALSO, REGRET THAT NO FOLLOW-UP WAS CONDUCTED APART FROM DEAN COUTTS' TRIP SHORTLY AFTER THE SECOND GROUP RETURNED. TODAY IS.....

Table 6

Partial Computer Print-Out for Documentary Abstracts of Data Related to Question (2) under "University-Community Relationships"

Code	Documentary Abstract
A012-7-02	MRS. WAINES, WINNIPEG WOMEN'S BRANCH , C.I.I.A., WROTE TO WORTH REQUESTING U. OF A. TO SEND ONE UGANDA TRAINEE TO ADDRESS HER GROUP. ROBERTSON REPLIED, MENTIONING ONE LIKELY TRAINEE, AND PROMISING TO SEND WAINES REPORTS TRAINEES WROTE ABOUT THEMSELVES AND THEIR WORK, AND HER OWN OBSERVATIONS ABOUT THE PROBLEMS TRAINEES FACED AT HOME AND HERE
A013-7-02	WORTH WROTE TO ... THANKING, ON BEHALF OF THE DEPT. AND THE TRAINEES, HER AND WIVES OF OTHER SENIOR STAFF MEMBERS FOR THEIR ASSISTANCE IN HELPING TRAINEES PURCHASE WINTER CLOTHING
A020-7-02	ROBERTSON REPLIED TO WAINES.....
A090-7-02	P.D.K. ARRANGES FOR FIRST YEAR TRAINEES TO VISIT IN GROUPS OF FIVE, EACH P.D.K. COMMITTEE MEMBER'S HOME. VISITS WERE DESIGNED TO BE OF VALUE TO THE TRAINEES PRIMARILY (EG. PLANNING EACH SESSION TO ENSURE THAT TRAINEES OBTAINED MAXIMUM INFORMATION ON ANY TOPICS DESIRED: CREATE AN OPEN ATMOSPHERE FOR TRAINEES TO PROBE CANADIAN CUSTOMS), AND SECONDARILY TO PROVIDE DATA ON CULTURAL DIFFERENCES, POINTS AT WHICH CROSS-CULTUPAL CONTACT CAUSES OVERT ANNOYANCE, AND REFINE TECHNIQUES OF OBSERVATION.....
A091-7-02	(A) BEFORE COMMUNITY EDUCATION COURSE STARTED, TRAINEES WERE WELCOMED BY THE PRINCIPAL OF VERMILION COLLEGE, THE MAYOR OF VERMILION, PRESIDENT OF THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE, AND THE M.L.A. OF THE DISTRICT WHO WAS ALSO THE EDITOR OF THE VERMILION STANDARD. (B) ROTARY CLUB AT VERMILION INVITED ALL THE TRAINEES TO BAR-B-QUE WHERE THEY VISITED WITH LOCAL WIVES AND FAMILIES. (C) LOCAL CHAPTER OF .....
M005-7-02	THE EDMONTON EXCHANGE TEACHERS CLUB INVITED THE FIRST YEAR TRAINEES TO AN INFORMAL EVENING IN THE OTTEWELL SCHOOL ON FRIDAY, NOV. 20,]964. AN EXCHANGE TEACHER SHOWED SLIDES HE OBTAINED DURING TWO YEARS' TEACHING IN SIERRE LEONE. ALMOST ALL TRAINEES ATTENDED THE VERY PLEASANT OCCASION.
M006-7-02	CORLETT, CHAIRMAN, INTERNATIONAL RELATIONS COMMITTEE OF THE EDMONTON ZONTA CLUB ASKED SPARLING IF ZONTA CLUB COULD BE OF ASSISTANCE IN ACQUAINTING THE FIRST YEAR TRAINEES WITH VARIOUS ASPECTS OF CANADIAN CULTURE.
M007-7-02	THE REGIONAL SECRETARY OF THE EAST AFRICAN STUDENTS UNION IN CANADA (PRAIRIE PROVINCES) WROTE TO .....

of the curriculum used in the Project), and (b) documentary abstracts collated for Question (2) under the category of "University-Community Relationships" (which is concerned with the type of off-campus social activities provided for the trainees by organizations in Alberta). For reasons of space, the computer print-outs are not reproduced in full; however, the abstracts shown in the tables suffice to illustrate the typical form taken by the abstracts.

The methodology of abstracting, coding, collating, and storage of pertinent data described in the preceding paragraphs was developed out of the needs of this particular study. However, the advantages which resulted from its use, particularly that of having a collection of concise, systematic, relevant, and printed data for the final reporting of findings, suggest it may have parallel utility in studies based on documentary study and interviews with open-ended questions, as in this particular investigation.

APPENDIX D

CURRICULUM CONTENT OF THE UGANDA PROJECT

APPENDIX D

CURRICULUM CONTENT OF THE UGANDA PROJECT

The courses comprising the academic study program were the same over the two years of the Project, except for (a) the community education course organized by the Department of Extension, The University of Alberta, which only second-group trainees received, (b) the additional regular university courses which some of the trainees were allowed to take in 1965-1966, and (c) more field experiences in the second year. No radical change in the content of the courses is suggested by the available evidence. The following summary of course names, descriptions, and hours for the seven-month main academic program is extracted from the final report of the 1965-1966 year of the Project (Department of Elementary Education, 1966):

1. Educational Curriculum and Instruction 100 - OBSERVATION AND STUDENT TEACHING - 100 hours

   This course provided the opportunity to observe primary school children in grades one, two and three in Edmonton city schools and to teach the students using instructional materials and methods commonly used in Canada.
   All Uganda teachers were enrolled in this course.

2. Educational Curriculum and Instruction 102 - FUNDAMENTALS OF PRIMARY EDUCATION - 200 hours

   This was primarily a methods course, with the time divided among social studies (history and geography), reading, listening, speaking, and writing of English, science, and mathematics. Through a series of lectures the instructors attempted to inform the Uganda teachers of the basic principles of methodology in these subject area fields.
   All Uganda teachers took this course.

3. Educational Curriculum and Instruction 138 - ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE - 150 hours

The main purpose of this course was to develop further each teacher's knowledge of the English language so that she, herself, could communicate better. In addition, some instruction was given concerning the teaching of English as a second language in the classroom.
All Uganda teachers studied this material.

4. Educational Psychology 176 - 100 hours

The emphases here were upon the principles of psychology and their application to educational problems, social and personal development, and child development.
All Uganda teachers were enrolled in this course.

5. Physical Education 137 - ELEMENTARY SCHOOL PHYSICAL EDUCATION - 75 hours

The learning and teaching of the basic movements according to child development principles were stressed in this course with all Uganda teachers participating.

6. Educational Curriculum and Instruction 109 - ART EDUCATION - 40 hours

This study sought to acquaint students with selected visual art experiences, to obtain knowledge of child development through art, to stimulate perception relative to their own environment as a source of motivation, and to obtain knowledge of the role of the teacher during an art lesson. The Uganda teachers chose between this course and music education. Hence only one-half of the group was enrolled in Art Education ...

7. Educational Curriculum and Instruction 113 - MUSIC EDUCATION - 40 hours

In this course an attempt was made to develop an understanding and appreciation of the principles of music education for children in the primary grades, to develop proficiency in implementing these principles, and to acquaint the students with curriculum materials and equipment for use in the classrooms ...

8. Educational Foundations 101 - HISTORY AND SOCIOLOGY EDUCATION - 100 hours

The course provided an introduction to the history of education in the world, with special reference to Uganda and an introduction to the social function of education in our twentieth century society.

All the Uganda teachers except ...(five)... were enrolled in this course. The extra English lessons presented to these five teachers in lieu of this course were well received and helped contribute to their success in their other courses.

9. Educational Curriculum and Instruction 146 - SCHOOL LIBRARY SERVICES - 75 hours

This course was an introduction to the philosophy, principles, and purposes of libraries and librarianship.
Only five Uganda teachers were enrolled ...

10. Educational Curriculum and Instruction 341 - INTRODUCTION TO SPEECH EDUCATION - 40 hours

This course helped the teachers determine their own speech needs and abilities and provided directed help in making necessary improvements in the choice and use of oral language in a variety of teaching situations.
Three Uganda teachers ... took this course.

The report also summarized the second-year community education course as follows:

Group Dynamics and Community Development Course
This was a six weeks course in Community Education for which the Uganda teachers were given credit for 150 hours of study. The course provided opportunities for the Uganda teachers to see rural life in Alberta and to study some subjects such as typing which could not be scheduled in the regular academic winter program. One of the main aims of the course was to provide opportunities in learning to communicate with groups of adults so that the teachers could operate literacy projects in Uganda more effectively.

All Uganda teachers participated in this course, which included two days of introductory and orientation-type activities preceding the three phases into which the main program was divided, namely

I. A completely unstructured group experience.
II. Learning by doing and experiencing.
III. Community Development and its Relevance to Situations in Uganda.

Phase I, lasting eight days, consisted of group discussion in which the trainees were guided by their group trainers in making their own decisions about a time-table for the next phase of the course. The activities included under Phase II thus were expressions of desirability

coming from the trainees themselves. Instructed by Vermilion College staff, the courses included typing, sewing, cooking, games and dancing, and visual aids. The trainees were also given the experience of visiting the Saddle Lake Indian Reserve, the Blue Quills Indian Residential School, an integrated day school at Racette, The Hutterite Colony at Minburn, local farms, the Vermilion School for the Retarded, and the Wild Life Exhibit at Lloydminster. Prior to each visit, a resource person gave an introductory talk to the trainees on the community or institution concerned.

The last phase of the course lasted ten days, and introduced the trainees to certain important principles and procedures in Community Development - e.g. involvement and self-help. It was hoped that the "relevance of Ugandan situations to community development principles and some Canadian principles would come out during discussions." In all, twenty-eight 40 minute-periods were devoted to lectures and discussions on nine topics:

(a) What is Community Development?

(b) A Role-Playing Approach to Problems of Urban and Rural Communities in Uganda.

(c) French Canada.

(d) Eskimos.

(e) A.R.D.A. (Area Rehabilitation and Development Administration, Department of Agriculture, Province of Alberta).

(f) Some Principles of Community Development.

(g) C.U.S.O. (Canadian University Service Overseas).

(h) Agriculture and Cooperatives in Alberta.

(i) Local Government and Representation.

Lecturing on the topics were university professors, provincial government officers, and a Member of the Provincial Legislative Assembly.

The above information, as well as more specific details about the content in the Community Education course, are contained in a report written by the course director (Hynam 1966).

APPENDIX E

LISTING OF DOCUMENTS EXAMINED IN THE STUDY

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LISTING OF DOCUMENTS EXAMINED IN THE STUDY

Tables 7, 8, 9, 10, and 11 are listings of all the documents examined in the study, and obtained respectively from

(a) The University of Alberta Archives, Files Accession No.: 70-10-31 and 70-10-32,

(b) files of the Office of the Comptroller, The University of Alberta,

(c) files of the External Aid Office now located at the Canadian International Development Agency, and

(d) a personal file belonging to Professor J. E. Robertson.

Three general comments on the listings should be made here.

First, if a recipient (person(s), group, organization) is listed, the document concerned is either a letter or a memorandum. In the case where no recipient is specified, the document may be a report, administrative notes, minutes of a meeting, or a newspaper cutting. Secondly, the file number of a document is listed whenever it is indicated on the document. Thirdly, the fifth column in each table refers to the code numbers of the documents specified by the coding system (Appendix C) developed for the purposes of this investigation.

Table 7

Listing of Documents Obtained from
The University of Alberta Archives
File Accession No. 70-10-31

Author	Recipient	Date	File No.	Code No.
H. T. Coutts	W. H. Johns	Sep 11, 1964	-	A001
W. H. Johns	H. T. Coutts	Sep 11, 1964	-	A002
M. F. R. Smith	J. E. Robertson	Sep 16, 1964	-	A003
H. Oram	J. E. Robertson	Sep 17, 1964	-	A004
J. E. Robertson	W. H. Worth	n.d.	-	A005[a]
J. E. Robertson	B. Finch	Sep 28, 1964	-	A006
J. E. Robertson	W. Toombs	Sep 25, 1964	-	A007
W. H. Worth	J. E. Robertson	Sep 28, 1964	-	A008
H. T. Coutts	R. E. Byron	Oct 7, 1964	-	A009
W. H. Worth	Project instructors	Oct 13, 1964	-	A010
J. E. Robertson	T. P. Atkinson	Oct 21, 1964	-	A011
J. E. Robertson	W. J. Waines	Oct 27, 1964	-	A012
W. H. Worth	Mrs. H. T. Coutts	Oct 6, 1964	-	A013
H. W. R. Hawes	-	Nov 10, 1964	-	U001
J. E. Robertson	-	n.d.	-	A015[b]
W. H. Worth	H. T. Coutts	Nov 4, 1964	-	A016
H. Christie	Maj. R.C.W. Hooper	Nov 16, 1964	-	A017
W. H. Worth	J. E. Robertson	Nov 17, 1964	-	A018
W. H. Worth	R. E. Eick	Nov 17, 1964	-	A019
W. J. Waines	J. E. Robertson	Nov 18, 1964	-	A020
J. E. Robertson	T. P. Atkinson	Nov 23, 1964	-	A021
W. H. Worth	W. P. Pilkington	Dec 2, 1964	-	A022
J. O. Regan	Phi Delta Kappa "Target 4" Committee	Dec 3, 1964	-	A023
W. H. Worth	J. E. Robertson	Dec 8, 1964	-	A024
W. H. Worth	J. E. Robertson	Dec 10, 1964	-	A025

Table 7 (Continued)

Author	Recipient	Date	File No.	Code No.
W. H. Worth	H. T. Coutts	Dec 10, 1964	-	A026
J. S. Magoba	Maj. R.C.W. Hooper	Dec 14, 1964	-	U002
J. E. Regan	Phi Delta Kappa "Target 4" Committee	Dec 14, 1964	-	A027
J. E. Robertson	M. Wilson	Dec 16, 1964	-	A028
J. E. Robertson	A. Carson	Dec 16, 1964	-	A029
J. E. Robertson	M. MacDonald	Dec 16, 1964	-	A030
W. H. Worth	H. T. Coutts	Oct 14, 1964	-	A031
W. H. Worth	J. M. Whidden	Nov 17, 1964	-	A032
W. H. Worth	J. M. Whidden	Jan 7, 1965	-	A033
H. W. R. Hawes	H. T. Coutts	Jan 1, 1965	-	U003
J. E. Robertson	Families of various university faculty	Jan 12, 1965	-	A034
W. H. Worth	M. E. G. Sinclair	Jan 13, 1965	-	A035
H. T. Coutts	W. H. Worth	Jan 26, 1965	-	A036
Dept. of Elem. Ed., University of Alberta	-	n.d.	-	A037[c]
W. H. Worth	R. Wardhaugh	Jan 19, 1965	-	A038
W. H. Worth	H. T. Coutts	Jan 25, 1965	-	A039
W. H. Worth	H. T. Coutts	Feb 9, 1965	-	A040
R. E. Byron	H. T. Coutts	Feb 11, 1965	-	E001
W. H. Worth	J. M. Whidden	Feb 15, 1965	-	A041
Ed. Fdns. Project instructors	-	n.d.	-	A042[d]
R. E. Byron	H. T. Coutts	Feb 17, 1965	-	E002
R. E. Eick	W. H. Worth	Feb 24, 1965	-	A043
W. H. Worth	R. E. Eick	Feb 26, 1965	-	A044
W. H. Worth	H. T. Coutts	Feb 24, 1965	-	A045
Victoria Colonist,B.C.	-	Sep 19, 1965	-	H001
Winnipeg Free Press, Manitoba; Regina Leader Post, Saskatchewan	-	Sep 18, 1965		

Table 7 (Continued)

Author	Recipient	Date	File No.	Code No.
P. Harrison, Ottawa Citizen, Ontario	-	Sep 19, 1964	-	M002
W. H. Worth	H. T. Coutts	Feb 25, 1965	-	A046
W. H. Worth	J. E. Robertson	Mar 3, 1965	-	A047
W. H. Worth	A. G. McBeath	Mar 4, 1965	-	A048
W. H. Worth	J. M. Whidden	Mar 5, 1965	-	A049
W. H. Worth	J. M. Whidden	Mar 5, 1965	-	A050
W. H. Worth	J. M. Whidden	Mar 5, 1965	-	A051
W. H. Worth	J. E. Robertson	Mar 5, 1965	-	A052
W. H. Johns	R. E. Byron	Mar 22, 1965	-	A053
J. E. Robertson	First-group trainees	Apr 19, 1965	-	A054
H. T. Coutts	R. E. Byron	Mar 23, 1965	-	A055
W. H. Worth	H. T. Coutts	Mar 25, 1965	-	A056
W. H. Worth	H. T. Coutts	Mar 25, 1965	-	A057
R. E. Eick	W. H. Worth	Apr 12, 1965	-	A058
W. H. Worth	R. E. Eick	Apr 13, 1965	-	A059
W. B. Dockrell	W. H. Worth	Mar 24, 1965	-	A060
W. H. Worth	W. B. Dockrell	Mar 29, 1965	-	A061
W. H. Worth	W. B. Dockrell	Mar 31, 1965	-	A062
J. S. Magoba	Maj. R.C.W. Hooper	Mar 29, 1965	-	U003
W. B. Wannop	M. Akello	Feb 25, 1965	9F - A61	E003
W. B. Wannop	A. Mbaikaize	Mar 24, 1965	9F - M91	E004
W. H. Worth	J. E. Robertson	Apr 5, 1965	-	A063
W. H. Worth	H. T. Coutts	May 14, 1965	-	A064
J. E. Robertson	-	n.d.	-	A065[e]
W. H. Worth	Project staff	Nov 5, 1965	-	A066
W. H. Worth	First-group trainees	Apr 30, 1965	-	A067
External Aid Office	Sponsored students and trainees in Canada	1964	-	E005

Table 7 (Continued)

Author	Recipient	Date	File No.	Code No.
First group trainees	Training Programs Section, EAO	1965	-	A068
Ministry of Education, Uganda	-	n.d.	-	M003[f]
J. G. Sparling	-	Mar 31, 1965	-	A126[g]
J. E. Robertson	-	Feb 15, 1965	-	A127[h]

[a]Memorandum on first-year reception/orientation.

[b]Education and employment records of first-group trainees.

[c]Listing of courses for Uganda Project.

[d]Marks for Ed. Fdns. 101 in 1964.

[e]Marks for first year final examinations in 1965.

[f]Ugandan syllabus for primary schools, 1964.

[g]Report of assessment session on March 31, 1965 during which first year trainees gave suggestions for organizing of second year program.

[h]Minutes of second interim appraisal meeting of 1964-65 program.

Table 8

Listing of Documents Obtained from
The University of Alberta Archives
File Accession No. 70-10-32

Author	Recipient	Date	File No.	Code No.
W. H. Worth	G. A. Eyford	Jun 25, 1965	-	A069
H. T. Xoutts	W. H. Worth	Aug 20, 1965	-	A070
J. E. Robertson	L. P. Morgan	Sep 23, 1965	-	A071
J. E. Robertson	Project instructors	Sep 25, 1965	-	A072
J. E. Robertson	H. T. Coutts	Sep 30, 1965	-	A073
W. H. Worth	D. Campbell	Oct 8, 1965	-	A074
J. E. Robertson	G. Roberts	Oct 18, 1965	-	A075
H. T. Uoutts	R. E. Byron	Oct 28, 1965	-	A076
J. E. Robertson	Project instructors	n.d.	-	A077
J. E. Robertson	H. Christie	Dec 1, 1965	-	A078
W. H. Worth	J. E. Robertson	Dec 8, 1965	-	A079
J. E. Robertson	-	n.d.	-	A080[a]
W. B. Wannop	J. E. Robertson	Dec 13, 1965	-	E006
D. Campbell	W. H. Worth	Jan 19, 1966	-	A081
W. H. Worth	H. Christie	Feb 25, 1966	-	A082
G. A. Eyford	W. H. Worth	Feb 17, 1965	-	A083
W. H. Worth	J. E. Robertson	Aug 13, 1965	-	A084
J. E. Robertson	H. T. Coutts	Apr 14, 1966	-	A085
W. H. Worth	J. E. Robertson	Oct 25, 1966	-	A086
H. T. Coutts	W. H. Worth	Nov 1, 1966	-	A087
J. E. Robertson	H. T. Coutts	n.d.	-	A088
J. O. Regan	-	Dec - , 1965	-	A089[b]
J. O. Regan	-	May - , 1966	-	A090[c]
C. A. S. Hynam	-	- 1966	-	A091[d]

[a]Report on orientation course for second-group trainees.

[b]Second Interim Report, International Relations in Education. Phi Delta Kappa, Epsilon Omega Campus Chapter.

[c]Culture Shock. Report of an exploratory study in international understanding sponsored by Phi Delta Kappa.

[d]Report on the Community Education course for second group trainees.

Table 9

Listing of Documents Obtained from
Files of the Office of the Comptroller,
The University of Alberta

Author	Recipient	Date	File No.	Code No.
W. H. Johns	R. E. Byron	Sep 11, 1964	-	A092
H. T. Coutts	W. D. Wannop	Nov 6, 1964	-	A093
J. M. Whidden	H. T. Coutts	Oct 20, 1964	-	A094
H. T. Coutts	M. A. Rousell	Oct 26, 1964	-	A095
H. T. Coutts	G. T. Tanzer	Nov 6, 1964	-	A096
W. B. Wannop	R. E. Armfield	Nov 9, 1964	-	E007
W. H. Johns	R. E. Byron	Jan 21, 1965	-	A097
H. T. Coutts	R. E. Byron	Jan 22, 1965	-	A098
R. E. Armfield	W. B. Wannop	Nov 6, 1965	-	A099
W. H. Johns	R. E. Byron	Feb 3, 1965	-	A100
R. E. Byron	W. H. Johns	Jan 29, 1965	-	E008
R. E. Byron	W. H. Johns	Mar 30, 1965	-	E009
M. A. Rousell	H. T. Coutts	May 26, 1965	-	A101
W. H. Worth	M. A. Rousell	Sep 21, 1965	-	A102
W. H. Worth	M. A. Rousell	Sep 20, 1965	-	A103
M. A. Rousell	R. E. Byron	Dec 1, 1965	-	A104
R. E. Byron	R. E. Byron	Dec 20, 1965	-	E010

Table 10

Listing of Documents Obtained from Files of the External Aid Office

Author	Recipient	Date	File No.	Code No.
External Aid Office (EAO)	-	n.d.	-	E011[a]
EAO/Gue	-	n.d.	-	E012[b]
Office of the High Commissioner for Canada, Dar-es-Salaam (OHCD)	Director-General EAO	Nov 25, 1963	36-20-9/849	D001
N. Power	J. Hobart	n.d.	-	E013
J. Hobart	N. Power	n.d.	36-00-9 x 9E-1	E014
OHCD	EAO	Feb 3, 1964	36-20-9	D002
Director-General, EAO	OHCD	Aug 1, 1963	36-9F-1	E015
N.F.H. Berlis	Director-General EAO	Sep 7, 1963	36-9F-1/629	D003
N.F.H. Berlis	The Under-Secretary of State for External Affairs, Ottawa	Sep 14, 1963	36-9F-1/645	D004
H. J. Hodder	OHCD	Sep 26, 1963	36-20-9/168	E016
S. J. Luyimbazizake	N.F.H. Berlis	Oct 11, 1963	-	U004
N.F.H. Berlis	Director-General EAO	Oct 24, 1963	36-9F-1/748	D005
N.F.H. Berlis	S.C.Wood	Nov 25, 1963	-	D006
W.T.R. Flemington	OHCD	Nov 7, 1963	-	E017
EAO	OHCD	Feb 4, 1964	-	E018
H. T. Coutts	R. E. Byron	Aug 27, 1964	-	A105
S. J. L. Zake	Director of External Aid, EAO	Aug 28, 1964	-	U005
Director-General, EAO	H. T. Coutts	Sep 2, 1964	36-9F-1	E019
N.R.J. Gwyn	S.J.L. Zake	Sep 10, 1964	11-5, 20-9	E020
Director-General, EAO	OHCD	Sep 11, 1964	36-20-9/XAO-219	E021
H. Kanyike	J. T. Hobart	Sep 24, 1964	36-9F-1	U006
J. T. Hobart	H. Kanyike	Oct 1, 1964	36-9F-1	E022

Table 10 (Continued)

Author	Recipient	Date	File No.	Code No.
Ministry of Education, Uganda	-	Jul 1, 1965	-	U007[c]
OHCD	EAO	Mar , 1965	36-9F-1	D007
R.E. Byron	H.O. Moran	Mar 17, 1965	-	E023
J.Harvey	H.O. Moran	Mar 18, 1965	-	E024
R.E. Byron	H. T. Coutts	Mar 26, 1965	-	E025
W.H. Johns	R. E. Byron	Mar 31, 1965	-	A106
W.H. Johns	R. E. Byron	Apr 9, 1965	-	A107
R.E. Byron	W. H. Johns	Apr 13, 1965	36-9F-1	E026
R.E. Byron	OHCD	Apr 13, 1965	36-9F-1	E027
H. Christie	OHCD	May 21, 1965	36-9F-1/XAO-210	E028
Govt. of Uganda	Govt. of Canada	1964	-	U008[d]
Govt. of Uganda	Govt. of Canada	Aug 13, 1965	-	U009[e]
EAO	J. Dronyi	Sep 1, 1965	9F-D36	E028
Govt. of Uganda	Govt. of Canada	Aug 13, 1965	Form A9	U010[f]
R.E. Byron	H. T. Coutts	Sep 4, 1965	-	E029
Director-General, EAO	OHCD	Nov 15, 1965	11-5M/459	E030
J.L. Dronyi	W.B. Wannop	Nov 17, 1965	-	U010a
M.A. Rousell	R. E. Byron	Dec 1, 1965	-	A108
Z.J. Savangi	Director-General EAO	Dec 16, 1965	-	U011
H.T. Coutts	R. E. Byron	Jan 1, 1966	-	A109
H. Christie	H. Christie -	Jan 20, 1966	-	E031
P.C. Kruse	H. Christie	Feb 4, 1966	12-35-7	E032
B.E. Walker	H. J. Hodder	Mar 15, 1966	-	A110
J.M.B. Lwabi	OHCD	Mar 1, 1966	U-5-1	U012
OHCD	EAO	May 10, 1966	9F-S68	D008

Table 10 (Continued)

Author	Recipient	Date	File No.	Code No.
Z.Savangi	EAO	Jun 26, 1966	-	U013
J.M.B. Lwabi	OHCD	Sep 20, 1966	-	U014
J.E. Robertson	M.P. Gendron	Sep 23, 1966	-	A111
OHCD	Director-General EAO	Sep 26, 1966	9F-S68	D009
W.B. Wannop	OHCD	Dec 7, 1965	9F-A113 9F-K109	E033
Z.Savangi	W.B. Wannop	Sep 24, 1965	-	U015

[a]List of home addresses of first-group trainees.

[b]Exact expenditures on second-group trainees supplied by EAO to L. R. Gue.

[c]Teaching certificate awarded to Z. Savangi by Ministry of Education, Uganda.

[d]Form A8 (Revised October, 1962).

[e]Form A8 (Revised October, 1962).

[f]Form A9 (Revised October, 1962) for two second-group trainees dated June 7.

Table 11

Listing of Documents Obtained from
Personal Files of J. E. Robertson

Author	Recipient	Date	File No.	Code No.
J. E. Robertson	Cooperating Edmonton Teachers	Jan 24, 1966	-	A112
J. E. Robertson	-	n.d.	-	A113[a]
J. E. Robertson	-	n.d.	-	A114[b]
J. E. Robertson	-	Sep 25, 1965	-	A115
J. E. Robertson	W. N. Toombs	Nov 19, 1964	-	A116
J. E. Robertson	-	Oct-Dec, 1964	-	A117
J. E. Robertson	Observation Laboratory Schools	Oct 5, 1964	-	A118
J. E. Robertson	-	n.d.	-	A119[c]
J. E. Robertson	-	n.d.	-	A120[d]
W. J. Waines	J. E. Robertson	Nov 2, 1964	-	M004
M. E. Foster	J. E. Robertson	Oct 28, 1964	-	M005
J. G. Sparling	E. Corlett	Sep 30, 1964	-	A121
E. Corlett	J. G. Sparling	Sep 20, 1964	-	M006
Y. A. Ukech	International Student Adviser, University of Alberta	Sep 27, 1964	-	M007
J. E. Robertson	-	n.d.	-	A122[e]
J. E. Robertson	-	n.d.	-	A123[f]
First Group trainees	EAO	n.d.	-	U016[g]

Table 11 (Continued)

Author	Recipient	Date	File No.	Code No.
W. H. Worth	H. E. Chapman	Jul 20, 1965	-	A124
Dept. of Elementary Education	-	1966	-	A125[h]

[a]Notes on Ed. Psy.

[b]Notes on Ed. CI 102-104.

[c]Notes on Ed. CI 113 (Music).

[d]Notes on Phy. Ed. 337.

[e]Minutes of meeting to appraise first-group trainees' progress on November 19, 1964.

[f]Report of first year reception/orientation.

[g]Personal Reports.

[h]Report of the Uganda Project, 1965-66, Department of Elementary Education.